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Counseling, Guidance, and Personnel Work

Reviews the literature for the three years ending October 1, 1947. Earlier literature was reviewed in Volume III, No. 3; Volume VI, No. 2; Volume IX, No. 2; Volume XII, No. 1; and Volume XV, No. 2.

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1. The first part of the paper is devoted to a general
discussion of the subject. It is shown that the
theory of the subject is not yet fully developed,
and that there is a need for further research.
The author then proceeds to a detailed examination
of the various theories which have been proposed,
and shows that each of them has its own merits
and its own defects. He then proposes a new
theory, which he claims to be more complete
and more satisfactory than any of the others.
The paper concludes with a summary of the
author's conclusions, and a list of references.

2. The second part of the paper is devoted to a
detailed examination of the various theories which
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INTRODUCTION

SINCE the appearance of the last REVIEW, World War II has been concluded and most of the men and women who were in the service have again taken up their responsibilities as citizens. Moreover, the readjustment period has seen a conversion of war industries to peacetime production with consequent shifts in employment. The studies reviewed in the present issue reflect the impact of the war and the readjustment period upon research in pupil personnel work and guidance.

The general outline employed in the last REVIEW has been followed in this issue. An effort has been made to restrict the references to actual research investigations, but deviation from this principle seemed necessary particularly in the chapters on "Conditions Affecting Personnel Work," "Programs of Personnel Work," and "Preparation of Guidance and Personnel Workers." In these chapters more descriptive materials have been included.

The period covered has seen a marked expansion of personnel programs resulting from attempts to apply personnel procedures employed in the armed forces to the needs of industry, schools and colleges, hospitals, and governmental agencies. Unfortunately, more attention has been given to the initiation and development of the programs than to their critical evaluation thru organized and carefully planned research. There has also been an increase in the publication of occupational information, particularly by governmental bureaus and agencies. The nondirective method in counseling has provided the bases for the major discussions in current publications and has served to stimulate research employing verbatim records, standardized tests, and projective technics in the evaluation of counseling. Complementary to the individual-centeredness of the nondirective approach there has been in the literature on group guidance a growing recognition of the importance of environmental conditions for learning with regard to personal growth and adjustment. Research workers have not given to the training of counselors the attention that it merits, and we still need studies of the desirable objectives of training and the most effective methods of attaining them.

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Committee on Counseling, Guidance and Personnel Work.

CHAPTER I

Characteristics and Needs of Individuals

MAY V. SEAGOE

ANY review of research trends in characteristics of individuals has certain limitations. The field is broad. It lacks structure; it is not clearly differentiated from other areas. The research is abundant and significant trends difficult to trace. Yet some general orientation to so significant an area is basic to any consideration of counseling, guidance, and personnel work.

In selecting the publications listed here from the 373 reviewed only research type studies are considered. Those appearing in periodicals available only in highly specialized research libraries are omitted. The studies used constitute (a) research of major significance because of its comprehensiveness, (b) research reflecting major trends or those omitted in the previous review, and (c) bits of research in relatively new areas which may constitute straws in the wind for future work. It is apparent that studies cited are significant in varying ways. The review is intended only as a guide to the research worker in locating those that may be appropriate to his own particular interest.

The organization follows an age pattern, recognizing that the problems of educational workers usually fall into such categories. Common problems recur at several age levels.

Preschool

Normative studies descriptive of early development continued to appear. Meredith (66) brought together in comprehensive fashion the data on physical growth in the first two years of life. Variables associated with sex, race, time, socio-economic status, geographic region, status of parents, order of birth, prematurity, disease, and diet are treated. A study of psychological development over a greater time span is reported by Ebert and Simmons (23) with analysis of intelligence test constancy, prediction of scholastic achievement, and treatment of sibling resemblance. An increased interest in early childhood emotional development is evidenced in such studies as those of Bach (6) concerned with the educational use of doll play in the study of children's fantasies.

The effect of environment on the stability of the intelligence quotient is still a live research topic. Skodak and Skeels (90) presented a follow-up study of children in adoptive homes that in essence verified earlier findings. Bradway (10) similarly demonstrated the relationship of home factors to changes in intelligence quotient. Goldfarb (30) extended the nature

of the research to include the effects of early institutionalization on the emotional development of children with thought-provoking results.

Studies of special cultural groups, too, are of interest. Pasamanick (74) found that, with locale held constant, the Negro infant's development is at least equivalent to that of white, the depressing influence of exogenous factors beginning during the third half-year of life. Lewis (59) compared the children of the Tennessee Mountains with those of Greenwich Village, finding a relationship between fundamental personality differences and degree of security at home in the two contrasting cultures.

Specific studies of parent behavior in relation to child development are significant. Lafore (55) studied parent practices in relation to child development, finding that the dictatorial parent evokes the highest incidence of hostility, the punishing parent the greatest amount of crying, and the diverting parent the most teasing and nagging. The necessity for accepting child demands and interruptions is presented. Myers (67) conducted an experimental investigation of various types of commands, showing that the appearance of a negative element in the command results in a decrease in constructive activity, an increase in change to a different activity, and an increase in nervous behavior and disobedience.

The relation of the educational program to the personality development of children has received new impetus. Thompson (95) compared experimentally a minimum with a greater degree of teacher-guidance; there was greater social development in the group with a greater degree of guidance. Anderson, Brewer, and others (1, 2, 3) conducted a highly significant series of studies on the effect of teachers' integrative and dominative contacts with children, one on the kindergarten and another on the elementary-school level. The frequency of dominative and integrative behavior, its relation to the child's sex, inconsistency between teachers, and the reflection of these factors in child behavior were all studied. Both the method and the content are important for mental hygiene and for the training of teachers.

Elementary Education

Several normative studies of children's behavior have appeared. The volume of Gesell, Ilg, Ames, and Bullis (29) is both comprehensive and significant. Development in ten major areas of life, from motor characteristics to philosophic outlook, are treated by age levels and in terms of over-all trends. Henry (39) presented an intensive study of electroencephalograms of normal children from three months to nineteen years. Katz (50) studied factors related to the development of children's preferences for traditional and modern paintings. Hartley (36) studied sociality in boys aged ten to twelve, finding interrelationships between sociality, peer judgment, and success in maintaining social contacts. There was little relationship between sociality and self-judgment of sociality or desire for social contact.

Studies of a number of groups of atypical children have appeared. Woods (103) reviewed the literature on the mentally gifted. Howard (44) studied a relatively large group of triplets, finding them retarded on psychological tests but normal in personality development.

More general factors in emotional maladjustment are presented in a number of studies. Hewitt and Jenkins (42) analyzed five hundred case files from the Michigan Child Guidance Institute, finding three well-defined syndromes and characteristic associated factors. The aggressive child is unwanted and lives in a deteriorated neighborhood; the socialized delinquent is at first accepted, then his parents become indifferent and he becomes a loyal gang member; the overinhibited child comes from a repressive family, often shows physical deficiencies, and feels neglected and different. Roe and Mittleman (81) studied children of alcoholic and psychotic parentage placed in foster homes at an early age, concluding that the high incidence of alcoholism and psychosis reported in the offspring of alcoholics cannot be explained solely on the basis of any specific heredity. Other studies such as those of Horwitz (43), Stein (92), Gollonder (32), Moses (71), and Laschinger (56) relate other problems of behavior to home and community factors.

The impact of cultural differences continues to attract research of increasing quality. MacGregor and Hassrick (62) studied the personality of the Pine Ridge Sioux and made recommendations regarding improved treatment. Koch (53) studied preferences of children for classmates in mixed Negro-white and all-white schools. A different kind of cultural difference was studied by Kalhorn (48) in a comparison of Mennonite and nonMennonite children in rural Iowa. Havighurst (38) reported a comprehensive series of studies of child development in a typical mid-western community. Child-rearing practices, parental ideologies, and intelligence test performance are related to social class and color.

There has been attention to specific school problems as well. Reading failure continues to interest many investigators. Robinson (80) reported a five-year study of thirty seriously retarded readers, revealing many erroneous assumptions regarding the causes of reading disability, and relating the difficulty to social, visual, and emotional problems. Gann (28), using groups of superior, average, and retarded readers matched in chronological age, intelligence, school experience, and sex, found the most pertinent clues to retardation in personality adjustment. Jackson (45) compared 300 advanced and retarded readers, finding that fears, worries, failures, introversions, and the like are important in relation to reading disability.

A more general approach to school problems is found in Sandin's study (83) of promotional policy. The nonpromoted are more mature, choose their companions from above their grade level, are considered inferior by teachers, want to leave school, are worried about nonpromotion, and are subject to ridicule.

Secondary Education

Several general reviews of adolescent problems appeared. The National Society for the Study of Education (40) summarized the findings of physiology, anthropology, psychology, and sociology with respect to physical, emotional, and social change and to educational adjustment. Froehlich (26) presented a comprehensive review of studies of mental development, and Finch (24) investigated the stability of intelligence of the high-school population. The impact of the war on adolescent behavior was similarly analyzed under the editorship of Bossard and Boll (9).

Investigation of physical development and its relation to social and emotional adjustment continues. Gallagher and Brouha (27) measured efficiency in hard muscular work in relation to age, size, and fitness. H. E. Jones (47) compared physically strong and weak boys from the same environment in social adjustment, finding the strong boys superior in social prestige, personal adjustment, and freedom from tensions and fears. Morgan (70) analyzed the emotional adjustment of visually handicapped adolescents in public schools, schools for the blind, and reform schools.

Studies of emotional development are well represented. Gruen (34) studied the relation of level of aspiration to maladjustment, finding the maladjusted estimates unrealistic in being either below the performance level, or grossly compensatory overestimates. Wittman and Huffman (101) compared high school, training school, and state hospital adolescents to determine differences. Differences were found in sociological data, self-ratings of parental relationships, early home and school life, and personality type and adjustment levels. The type of adjustment level for the delinquent and psychotic groups during early home and school life were considered prodromal factors related to the subsequent type of abnormality shown by the child. Goldfarb (31) used the Rorschach to determine differences between the adolescent whose infancy was spent in an institution and the adolescent reared in a foster home. The institutional children were less mature, less controlled, less differentiated, less capable of clear perception and of developing logical constructs, less active and energetic, less ambitious, and less capable of adjustment related to conscious intention or goal.

Social relationships received a fair share of attention. Deutschberger (21) analyzed the leadership structure of thirty-two groups of adolescent males and interpreted the results in terms of emotional factors. Vickery (97) studied club groups and compared characteristics of leaders and isolates. Smith (91) found that participants in extra-curriculum activities tend to be superior, tho those with high socioeconomic status have the advantage in participation. The relationship between early training in the use of money and certain personality correlates was presented by Prevey (75).

Two experimental studies of modification in social adjustment are significant. Axelrod, Cameron, and Solomon (5) brought together eleven shy and withdrawn adolescent girls for group work, with results superior

to either individual case work or to customary group work. Cook (19) made a sociographic analysis of the impact of individual guidance and of group activities on the group structure of a tenth-grade class.

Higher Education

Three general studies of college populations mark an increasing interest in personnel research at that level. Murphy and Ladd (73) analyzed by clinical procedures the educational development of two entering classes at Sarah Lawrence College. Emotional factors, and attitudes in relation to the total educational pattern are stressed. Wells and Woods (99) presented a more limited study of a group of Harvard men, showing the relationship between personality in college and adjustment in the armed services. Harvey (37) submitted a questionnaire on attitudes significant for mental health to students in ten universities with interesting results.

The close interrelationship between physical, mental, and emotional factors is brought out by Guetzkow, Brozek, and others (35). They found B complex deprivation results in no deterioration in rate of learning, tho it causes some lowering of level of performance and an increase in psychoneurotic scores, especially depression. Rapid recovery follows when the diet is supplemented by thiamin alone.

There were two studies of emotional factors which are especially significant from the theoretical standpoint. Sherman (88), in a study of emancipation of college students from parents, found the most emancipated students tend to be men, to have higher scores on the ACE examination, to be older, to have been at college longer, and to have siblings. Wolfenstein (102), using a technic in which the subject chose between plausibility and wish-fulfillment in completing a story, studied the reality adjustment of psychotics and neurotics. Psychotics show low realism; the neurotics evidence relatively good realism, increasing with psychotherapy. Realism is also correlated positively with age, intelligence, and education.

Illustrative of studies of social factors in development at the college level are those of McDonald and of Kirkpatrick and Caplow. McDonald (61) analyzed conversational ability in relation to such personality factors as dominance, emotional stability, and pleasantness of voice. Kirkpatrick and Caplow (52), studied the courtship pattern among college students. Courtship difficulties, growth patterns in courtship experience, conflict and confusion in love affairs, and the breaking of the love affair as a bereavement experience, were all included in the investigation.

At the college level, too, the interest in differences between cultural groups persists. Shuey (89) found Jewish women more liberal, more gregarious, less emotionally stable, more aggressive, and less timid than nonJewish women similar in intelligence and age. Mull, Keddy, and Koonce (72) compared northern and southern college women, finding the southern group less neurotic, more dependent, more dominant, more self-

confident and more sociable. Seward (86) made an analysis of attitudes toward the feminine role using the Kirkpatrick feminism-antifeminism scale, the Terman-Miles M-F test, the Maslow inventory of dominance feeling, the College Board Scholastic Aptitude test, background factors, and thematic apperception to a series of pictures. A liberal trend with respect to education, work, and community activities was apparent. A comparison of extremes in attitude made clear the culture conflict concerning the feminine role, indicating the way for social reconstruction.

Studies of acceleration in college reflect the war situation in the early months of the review. Berg and Larsen (8) reported students selected on the basis of academic aptitude and emotional maturity made a highly satisfactory intellectual, emotional and social adjustment to college in spite of entrance one or more semesters early. Flesher (25) found that superior students who received their degrees in three years or less compared favorably with students of equal ability in grades, extra-curriculum activities, social life, health, and career after graduation. In neither case is there any evidence the same conclusions would be true for all college students.

Studies of the readjustment of the veteran are numerous. Mathewson (64) found veterans are considered to be better-than-average students, a point verified by an examination of records by Thompson and Flesher (96). Riemer (78) found the married veteran an especially good academic prospect, though he warns of uncontrolled variables in age and motivation. The plans of the veteran about to be discharged when reported by Brookover (12).

Adult Education

The ending of the war and readjustment to civilian activities is apparent in the increased volume of research at the adult level. There are numerous descriptions of special groups such as the general descriptions of the military aviation group by Miles (68), of the destroyer pool by Levin (57), of military leadership in general by Jenkins (46), and of illiteracy by Lewinski (58), Wall (98), and Aptheker (4). There are also investigations of the mental defective in military service such as that of Butler (14), of conscientious objectors such as Rabin's study (76), of men absent without leave by Davis, Wolman, Berman, and Wright (20), and of former child guidance patients by Cohen and Witmer (18).

The greatest interest in war-aggravated problems lies in the emotional field. Broad studies are reported by Brill, Tate, and Menninger (11); Ebaugh, Solomon, and Bamford (22); Grinker (33), Heuser, (41), Ro-back (79), Schwab, Finesinger, and Brazier (85); and Sheps and Coburn (87). More narrowly defined problems are illustrated by the study of enuresis by Schliensky, Sarracino, and Bischof (84), of combat fatigue by Raines and Broomhead (77), of dementia praecox by Bellak and Parcell (7), and of childhood factors in military adjustment by Kasanin,

Rhode, and Wertheimer (49). In addition, there are studies of the mental health of special groups, such as that of McHarg (63) on submariners, and Moloney (69) on the civilian population of Okinawa Shima.

Studies of war-time industrial problems are also represented. Kerr (51) investigated the effect of music on production. Mayo and Lombard (65) found the formation of small natural groups reduced absenteeism and labor turnover. Sweetland (94) and Wittkower and Davenport (100) presented vocational problems of the handicapped and of the blind.

Turning to the general civilian group, a number of studies of vocational interest appeared. Strong (93) analyzed the interests of forest servicemen. Roe (82) presented Rorschach results for scientists and technicians. Carter (16) compiled a ten-year review of research on vocational choice and occupational satisfaction.

Three other studies merit comment. Kuhlen (54) summarized the literature on changes beyond the age of twenty in personality and life philosophy. Cameron (15) presented an analysis of the relationships between excitement, depression, and anxiety. Clark (17) investigated racial attitudes immediately following the Harlem riots of 1943 in relation to such factors as age, sex, education, church attendance, and the like.

Summary

The end of the war and the readjustment to a peace economy are the keys to the major trends apparent in the research of this period. The interest in preschool, in adult problems, and the stress on emotional problems at all levels are illustrations.

The continuing interest in environmental variables as determiners of individual differences is also significant. Differences between cultural groups, experimental modification of social attitudes, and the effect of factors in early family life have this common core.

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CHAPTER II

Conditions Affecting Personnel Work

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THIS chapter reviews the research on those conditions which affect personnel work in educational institutions, studies which have been conducted in various areas of personnel work but which have implications for educational personnel workers. There has been a large number of publications concerned with this topic but the amount of research is relatively small.

Organization of Program and Training of Personnel

Smith (39) has described the administrative organization of the personnel program and the roles played by the superintendent or principal, head counselor, counselors, classroom teachers, and librarian. Such a hierarchy may not be feasible in a small high school but the principles seem adaptable to schools of various size. Hill (20) has described a junior high-school program and Rosenlof (37) has pointed out some factors in the admissions process which can help to round out the total personnel program.

In a survey made in the state of Washington, Chisholm (8) discovered numerous stumbling blocks to the guidance program. He classified 175 schools into three groups, small, medium, and large. He found that according to the principals' ratings 60 percent of the teachers were inadequately prepared to participate in the guidance program. In the larger high schools, 91 percent of the teachers were unprepared. In 63 percent of the schools the teachers claimed to be too busy and in 38 percent there was said to be too much turnover in teaching personnel. In the three groups, more than 30 percent of the schools reported lack of teacher interest in the program. This was more frequently true in the larger schools. In 38 percent of the schools, the principals stated they were not qualified to judge the effectiveness of the program, and 29 percent reported that they had insufficient knowledge to plan for systematic guidance. It is interesting to note that only 19 percent of the schools stated that lack of money stood in the way of a guidance program. Chisholm has pointed out some implications of this study for teacher-training institutions. The findings, tho perhaps discouraging, are not altogether surprising because older teachers are less likely to have been taught systematic personnel procedures and philosophy. Larger schools usually do not hire new teachers and therefore the older teachers tend to become institutionalized in the larger and urban schools. This particular group of large high schools reported the most stumbling blocks in the way of an adequate personnel program.

In a study of 155 North Central Association public universities, private universities, and public and private colleges Kamm and Wrenn (23) found that 79 percent were planning to meet the problems of increased enrolment thru additional orientation, activities, and thru developing additional housing accommodations. Forty percent of the schools reported that they planned to utilize upper classmen as counselors for new students and about one-third had special scholarships and assistantships for veterans. Kamm and Wrenn point out, however, that only 11 percent of these colleges and universities reported having a marriage counselor despite the anticipated increase in married students. The authors saw three areas in which postwar personnel programs might be handicapped: (a) lack of a basic philosophy to insure a coordinated program, (b) lack of faculty support for personnel work, and, (c) lack of trained and effective personnel workers.

The professionalization of personnel work has yet to be achieved at a high level particularly in the high school. Trabue (42) reviewed the history of vocational guidance and recommended the use of democratic concepts in vocational guidance, that is, giving the student sufficient information so that he can make intelligent choices.

Teachers enrolled in a mental hygiene class were compared by DiMichael (13) to teachers taking a course in educational guidance to study the changes in attitudes resulting from these kinds of training. His sample consisted of twenty-one teachers in a mental hygiene course and twenty-three teachers enrolled in an educational guidance course. They had had an average of thirteen and one-half years and sixteen and four-tenths years of teaching experience, respectively. DiMichael administered the Wickman Behavior Rating Scale to both groups at the first and last class meetings. The results indicated that before taking the course the teachers studying mental hygiene tended to rate problems more like mental hygienists. The guidance group after taking the class rated problems approximately as the mental hygiene group did before taking it. The group of teachers who registered for the mental hygiene class had somewhat better understanding of students' problems than did the other group. It is interesting to note that a larger proportion of the guidance class had earned no college degree. Those teachers taking the guidance course had an average of nearly three additional years of teaching experience. Whether these attitudinal differences were a function of age or intelligence or of something else is not clear. The facts, however, correlate with the rather widely observed fact that many teachers enter the guidance field as an after-thought; it is one way to improve or change their status.

Altho social work for many years has been a part of school systems thru the office of the visiting teacher, experimental programs on a wider basis were tried out during the past three years. Laabs (26) reported an experiment in St. Paul in which social workers took over the treatment of problem children and brought the parents into the picture. She described

how schools have some information which social agencies need and social agencies have information which the schools need and the desirability of avoiding duplication of services. In Laabs' opinion a social agency can bring other confidential information to bear on a particular case and the social case worker can observe the child in a relatively controlled or structured setting which is readily available. She pointed out some of the problems of coordination including lack of knowledge by the principal and worker about each other and the differences in philosophy, responsibility, practices, and available resources. The necessity for a school social worker who belongs to and is acceptable to both groups was stressed as the most effective coordinator of the educational social processes.

In Philadelphia (14) an experiment was tried in coordinating the work of attendance officers, home and school visitors, employment certificating officials, and counselors. The plan included the installation of counselors in elementary and secondary schools. A central administrative staff was set up for the school system and a training program was conducted by the Philadelphia Child Guidance Clinic staff and others. It included instruction in the counseling process, psychological growth problems of children, and the relationships of the counselor, and the community. Teachers who were selected for these counseling positions and who were undertaking this training were given a full half-day off each day of the week for the entire year to participate in the instructional program for counselors. The program is too recent to have been evaluated. Louisiana and Michigan (14) have both established the beginnings of state programs.

The historical sweep of personnel work is sometimes overlooked by those who are busy in the practicum of an on-going program. Wallin (46) reviewed the tremendous strides in special educational services which have developed during the forty year period in which he has been active. Virtually every major land mark in counseling, guidance, and special educational programs has come into being during this period. Personnel workers who are trying to extend their facilities are referred to this source for a picture of the problems which Wallin and others have solved.

Personnel Records

Records serve three uses of primary importance. They are essential for the year-to-year observation and guidance of the individual; they provide necessary information on students who have departed to go to another school or into employment; and they serve as a basis for research studies. The latter function has not received as much attention as seems desirable, and future investigators may profitably turn to the research possibilities of records for evaluating the effects of counseling and the worth of counseling programs. Traxler (43) has reviewed the use of cumulative records which he calls the central core of a guidance program. The chief characteristics of the cumulative record are (a) it should

grow and develop in accordance with school objectives; (b) it should bring together and summarize all information needed in counseling; (c) it is intrinsically a growth record in the broad sense; (d) it contains objective data which is summarized and interpreted; (e) it should be related to basic record forms from which it selects data; (f) if the record is a folder-type card, the material contained in the file should be entered on the card itself, even tho briefly summarized; (g) a careful manual of instructions should accompany the form. The U. S. Office of Education has published a thoro discussion of cumulative records together with illustrations of various forms (45).

Pressey (32) reported an attempt to improve guidance by requiring college advisors to approve student plans for employment and campus activities before each registration period. The program was not very successful because many faculty advisors approved the over-all programs for students without adequate evaluation. The system as Pressey pointed out, has advantages when tied in with the cumulative record card and when it is used as a basis for counseling.

Criteria for selecting those items which should be included on a cumulative record for mentally retarded children were studied by Stevens (40). The sixteenth criteria which he developed would be applicable to cumulative records in general. He stresses the future social utility of such records and also their suitability for both administrative and curriculum. The latter point is not always recognized in the use of the cumulative record.

Enrolment

Postwar college enrolments were expected to climb very sharply and Franklin (16) has described one attempt to meet these problems. Bagley (3) had already pointed out the serious decline in high-school enrolments during the first three years of the war when the high-school population declined by a million students. High schools and communities were urged to undertake comprehensive programs designed to bring high-school youth back to the educational halls. The observance of child labor laws, provision for balanced school and work schedules, and supervision of part-time work for students attending high school were recommended.

With the end of the war came a back-to-school trend which swelled beyond all expectations and finally flooded the colleges. The number of veterans returning to college, less than 50,000 in 1945, swelled to more than one million in 1946. College enrolments rose 50 percent over previous peak enrolments (2). Of the more than two million students of higher education, almost one-half of all students and more than one-half of all veterans enrolled in 141 larger institutions. The number of women students reached an all-time high, it being approximately 667,000. This introduced a new problem of having an adequate number of counselors who understood the problems of women students. Kline (24) has described a

comprehensive program set up to meet the problems generated by this influx of veterans.

Attendance

Altho a great deal was written about attendance in school, few studies were made of the basic factors associated with attendance. Two studies made in Hagerstown, Maryland investigated the problem of absences due to sickness. Ciocco and Altman (9) reported that absence due to minor sickness, such as colds and mild digestive upsets, has increased since previous studies made in the 1920's. They also found (1) an average of four days absence per one hundred child-school days at the beginning and end of the school year and six days of absence in the mid-months. Colds and respiratory diseases were chiefly responsible for absences in the winter, and digestive and headache difficulties decreased as reasons for absence during the winter months. The number of days lost were highest for the younger age groups but days of absence for reasons other than sickness increased with age. Girls were found to lose more days of school because of sickness, boys for other reasons. Absences due to sickness have increased since the period of 1923-25 but decreased for other reasons. No relationships were found between illness and war conditions.

Truancy was described by Fornwalt (15) as an escape mechanism. He studied 400 truants in New York City and concluded that truancy was largely a result of personality conflicts between teachers and pupils. In his case studies he describes the brutality and almost unbelievable psychological ignorance of children on the part of some teachers. Counselors are in a position to discover such conditions and, thru appropriate reports to administrators, to assist in alleviating these factors.

Lummis (28) reported a study of the relation of school attendance to post-school employment and army records. Truants had the worst army conduct records of all groups studied and they had indifferent civilian employment records. He found that school absences for whatever cause were associated with poor records in civilian employment, with poor army conduct records, and with poor performance on army selection tests. His findings are provocative but one may question his assumptions that experienced personnel officers can "gauge with fair reliability" the accuracy of verbal statements made by adults about school attendance.

Acceleration

Intellectually superior and emotionally stable nonhigh-school graduates were found by Berg and Larson (5) to merit admission to college before the completion of high school. Thirty-six students who entered the University of Illinois one or two semesters before high-school graduation received average grades one standard deviation above the all-university fresh-

man grade point average. They were also judged to have satisfactory social and personal adjustments during their first year.

College students of superior ability were found to achieve superior grades in a special class which was added to a normal class schedule. Klinesmith (25) reported that seventeen of twenty students selected for an "honors" seminar were permitted to finish the program and only one student received less than a B in the final examination. More than one-half received a grade of A. They surpassed the regular classes and two experimental "accelerate" groups in grades earned. Altho the regular classes met five times a week and the experimental classes three times a week, the "honors" group met only six times during the term for two hour meetings. Klinesmith reported that the "honors" group was highly motivated and suggested the use of such seminars for superior students.

Pressey (33) found a negative correlation between ability as measured by objective examinations and the age of graduation. He also found that younger college graduates were more likely to become successful and well known in their field of endeavor. On this basis he argued against military conscription for youth and for acceleration of veterans. His data should be restudied holding intelligence constant to determine what factors other than age are related to success.

Gardner (18) discussed the ASTP and its implications for postwar personnel work. Brumbaugh (7) concluded that educational progress and achievement can no longer be measured in time units and that new methods must be devised for evaluating skills, understandings, and ability. He argued that returning veterans would not fit into the usual sequences and educational molds and asked for the extension and improvement of personnel services. Kline (24) has described a program structured to fit veterans' needs. Tuttle, Hastings, Smith, and Shank (44) wrote *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Forces*. Published by the American Council on Education, this volume makes comprehensive recommendations for the educational credit to be offered to veterans on the basis of service experience.

Promotion

Side-stepping the emotionally-toned arguments for and against regular promotion, Sandin (38) studied the social and emotional adjustments of pupils who are regularly promoted or nonpromoted. Children who repeated grades in the elementary schools associated more often with children in the upper grades who were in the same age level and did not consider their younger classmates to be appropriate companions. They exhibited anti-social behavior in the presence of their classmates and did not receive the approval or acceptance generally accorded to classmates. Both teachers and classmates thought that repeaters were more troublesome in class, but the former did not take substantial account of pres-

tures and underlying causes contributing to misbehavior. Some extreme examples of corporal punishment were found in dealing with repeaters. Twenty-five percent of the repeaters as compared to 5 percent of the regularly promoted children were found to have serious behavior problems. The attitude of nonpromoted children toward the school was less favorable and there are indications of less satisfactory adjustment. Nonpromoted children felt discouraged, wanted to quit, or thought the teacher unfair when they were not promoted. Thirty-one of thirty-four repeaters who were studied reported that they had received harsh treatment at home because of their failure to pass. The size and more mature social interests of nonpromoted children made their behavior in class more noticeable. In general, Sandin concluded the problems generated by nonpromotion can be reflected in social and emotional upsets.

Lewis (27) found evidence that intellectually retarded children achieve above expectations and that superior children achieve below prediction. Retarded children, he concluded, are pushed so that they can move ahead but gifted children need more attention to improve their achievement. One might conclude that while regular promotion assists in the adjustment of retarded children, special attention should be given in greater amounts to the improvement in the performance of gifted children.

Harms (19) recommended doing away with ungraded classes for low ability pupils and described plans for an experimental school in New York City for those students who would normally be placed in ungraded classes. The plans included a connection with a permanent guidance bureau for helping these students all thru life in occupational and post-school problems. Detailed steps for teaching wood-working processes to slow learning children were outlined by DiGiacomo (12).

Exceptional Children and Other Special Problems

Pinanski (31) discussed vocational counseling and orientation of epileptic children and the coordination of guidance with medical services. Whilden (48) pointed out the counselor's role in helping to manage epileptic children and making teachers aware of the problems involved. Selected references concerning exceptional children were collected by Robinson and Ingram (34, 35, 36). The areas covered include subnormal children, behavior problem cases, juvenile delinquency, gifted children, blind and partially seeing children, crippled children, hard of hearing children, and speech defectives.

During the past fifteen years, "Tween-Agers" have faced severe difficulties in employment and may face difficulties after the war for two reasons: (a) competition from returning veterans, and (b) competition from older workers from both sexes. McClusky (29) stressed the need for helping this group (between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five) to face these realities. Counselors are in a position to stress the values of education but must

know the job market and keep abreast with its changes in order to be of maximum assistance to this group of youths. Fuhrman (17) has discussed the use of the employment certificate as an aid in vocational guidance.

That each institution must study the characteristics of its students who utilize the counseling and personnel services was demonstrated by Baller (4). Among the entering students at the University of Nebraska, the more able students as determined by entrance examinations selected the guidance test program more frequently than others. These counseled students had significantly higher grade averages than other students but this might be a function of the original selection. More important, however, was the fact that freshmen who sought counsel about their personal and social problems were above average in ability but fell below average in their freshman grades.

The role of guidance in rural areas was discussed by Woollatt (49). He concluded that the crucial point is at the end of the elementary schooling period because so many Canadian children terminate their education at this point. He recommended a program of personnel work for rural schools which was designed to encourage pupils to continue beyond the elementary level.

Students who left New York schools during the wartime were compared to a group who left before the war. Sixty-one percent of the first group entered the armed forces the first year after leaving school. These veterans stated that they wanted refresher and advanced courses after the war. They also wanted night classes, references for employment, guidance services, and assistance in finding jobs as well as the opportunity to earn a high-school diploma. These studies reported by Morrison (30) and Weinrich (47) indicated a wide difference in needs for guidance between pre-war students who left school to go to work and those who went from high school to college. The results are in line with most youth studies in which adults have been dissatisfied with the direction and guidance received in school. Counselors might anticipate this post-school attitude in the students with whom they are in contact and devise better means for encouraging students to face problems realistically at a time when guidance services are available.

Evaluation of Counseling ¹

Few significant studies attempting to evaluate the results of counseling have appeared in the literature during the past three years. These, however, appear to be shifting from the use of scholastic achievement to measures of social and emotional adjustment as criteria. As might have been expected, several contributions to this field have come from studies conducted on military personnel.

¹ Acknowledgment is made to the work of the writer's assistant, Thomas C. Burgess, in the preparation of this section.

The design most often used in evaluating the outcomes of counseling is a control group experiment in which comparable groups are compared before and after one of them has received counseling. Other methods used include (a) comparisons of groups of counseled students with non-counseled students matched on selected characteristics, (b) statistical follow-up of counseling cases, and (c) client's evaluation of the services received. These latter methods all fail to give the desirable degree of experimental control.

Counseling Outcomes

A group of college students who had been counseled at a college guidance bureau were compared by Blackwell (6) with a "control" group, comparable in measured scholastic ability, with respect to their college grades. Difference in gains significantly favored the counseled group (1 percent level). Comparison of grades of the counseled group before and after counseling yielded a difference significant at the 5 percent level.

Toven (41) compared groups matched (person for person) on scholastic aptitude, sex, age, class, race, religion, and curriculum. One group was counseled by selected faculty advisers while the other group received no special attention. Comparisons were made with respect to graduation, persistence in college, grades, and number of credits earned. A significantly larger percentage of the counseled students graduated. He also noted that males were more responsive to counseling than were females; that counseling reduces student mortality; and that counseling was effective in avoiding scholastic difficulty, and that counsel students earned a greater number of credits.

In England, Hunt and Smith (22) compared students who had been counseled with and without the use of test information and concluded that such scientific methods in guidance improve the advice given and that children placed on the basis of such information were more satisfied with their jobs and of greater value to their employers.

The effectiveness of making therapeutic suggestions during screening interviews with Navy selectees was investigated by Closson and Hildreth (10). Members of experimental and control groups were selected at random and ratings on each individual were obtained four weeks later from their company commanders. Differences were found favoring the counseled group.

In a study of the adjustment of former child guidance patients to military service, Cohen and Witmer (11) found that 80 percent of those whose treatment had been judged successful appeared to have adjusted well to the military situation.

From an experiment with college students, Hill (21) concluded that counseling and stimulation of students by staff members to participate in activities leads to improved social adjustment. Groups had been equated

with respect to 15 variables including previous participation in activities. Differences found were not statistically significant but trends toward greater participation were noted for counseled students.

Most of the studies reviewed are concerned with evaluation of counseling in general and its effects. The general trend of findings appears to establish the fact that counseling does produce changes which we judge to be desirable and beneficial. More research is needed on the evaluation of specific counseling technics in more rigorously defined specific situations.

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CHAPTER III

Programs of Personnel Work¹

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THE need for evaluative studies of personnel programs is evidenced by the relatively few reports of research in this area which have appeared in the literature during the period covered by this review. Personnel programs in all areas have been described. Some of the reports indicate that evaluation of programs is in progress; others afford information concerning techniques and trends. Because of the possible value of these programs, it is necessary to refer to certain of them in this section. Preference is given to articles and books that have a definite bearing on a total program of personnel work.

Elementary-School Programs

Altho many educators continue to think of personnel programs in terms of the secondary school or college, there are indications that unified thought is developing regarding the importance of the elementary-school guidance program. O'Leary (41) described a program whereby many of the basic principles of guidance are applied in the elementary school. Thru coordinated effort of teacher, principal, special teacher, nurse, a core curriculum, a continuous pupil appraisal, and a developmental system of records, aid is given to each pupil in order that he might adjust to school and life. Further indications of the trend toward an organized guidance program in the elementary school were shown in articles by Berger (5) and Fedder (16). Ways by which guidance services can concentrate cooperative efforts toward the promotion and maintenance of pupil adjustment were given in the appraisal by Barbour (4) of a city school program. The program of guidance began over twenty years ago. In this same area of cooperation, Leavell (32) found that a close relationship between a child study clinic and all guidance services brought about significant changes in the achievement level of students for whom the services were made available. Fensch (17) discovered that teachers' reasons for requesting psychological examinations for pupils were attributable to some extent to the lack of understanding of guidance principles and practices on the part of the teachers making the requests.

Jackson (29) wrote of the effect of an orientation program in the elementary school upon the subsequent adjustment of the pupils to the junior high-school environment. Altho leaning heavily upon the secondary-school

¹Collaborators for this chapter were Clifford G. McCollum, graduate assistant in education, and Floyd H. Engstrom, instructor in psychology and head of the Counseling Bureau.

guidance program, recent books by Erickson and Happ (14), and Erickson and Smith (15), stressed the functional relationship that should exist between the elementary-school guidance program and the secondary-school guidance program within a school system.

Secondary-School Programs

Thru a survey of approximately 70 percent of the Catholic high schools in the United States, Leonard (33) found that only 12 percent reported having no guidance program. Successful work in the areas of religious, educational, and personal counseling was noted, while weaknesses in the vocational guidance and placement areas were found to prevail.

Attempts to clarify counseling in personnel work in the high school were made by several persons. In a detailed questionnaire and interview study of the work of a large number of selected secondary-school counselors thruout the United States, Cox (10) noted seven patterns of counseling functions which appear in the job setup of the counselors. Wright (55) reported an appraisal of the duties of counselors in the public schools of a large city. The manifold duties of the counselor attest to the demand for versatility. Descriptions of the work of counselors were presented in articles by Ingram (28), Seymour (46), and Stauffacher (47). But Froehlich's (22) check-up on a high school that changed from homeroom guidance to a program involving teacher-counselors illustrated the rocky road ahead before full participation of staff members in the guidance program can be expected.

Barber (3) evaluated the ten-year development of a high-school personnel program. Conclusions based upon a follow-up study of graduates and the workings of the various aspects of the program are to the effect that the program stimulated students and faculty alike. It is significant that the curriculum was broadened and plans for reorganization of the school resulted from the evaluation of the guidance program.

Drawing upon a three-year program of evaluation of guidance in senior high schools of New York City and other studies of guidance programs, Wilson (52) brought together significant principles and applications of evaluative procedures relating to guidance programs.

Indicative of developmental trends in high-school personnel programs are reports of programs written by Hill (25), Keesling (30), Kettler (31), Lewis (34), Lipsitz (35), Metcalf (39), Stuehrk (49), and Wilson (53), as well as Nix's (40) evaluative study of experimental programs of several high schools in a county, and Rathbun's (42) report of a state-wide evaluation of counseling and guidance.

Worbois (54) reported results of an experiment designed and conducted in a public high school in Flint, Michigan, to determine the effects of a guidance program upon emotional development of students participating in the program. Two groups of 233 ninth-grade pupils each were matched

on sex, age, intelligence, and achievement. The experimental group was given intensive individual guidance thru the work of two well-trained counselors over a period of three years. The control group received only the rather typical guidance program of the public high school over the same period of years. At the end of the three-year period, scores based on the use of the Luria technic were obtained for a representative sample of twenty-four students from each of the two groups involved in the experiment. Results of comparisons of criteria measures of emotional adjustment secured from the Luria records for the two groups were shown in the study. On one criterion, response to conflict stimulus words, it was found that statistically significantly better adjustment prevailed for the experimental group than for the control group. On the other criteria measures, the results did not satisfy the 1 percent level of statistical significance altho they approached it in some instances. The significance of the experimental study rests to a large degree in its utilization of methodology and its implications for further research conducted to ascertain the effects of guidance programs upon the adjustment of students. Indeed, there is a real need for more experiments of this nature.

Articulation between Secondary School and College

A function of high school and college personnel work is to aid the student to determine the appropriateness and possible value of college training for him. To that end, pre-college testing and counseling are conducted by some colleges on an organized basis. Reports of the work of the guidance clinics in two institutions of higher education illustrate methods. Hurd (27) described a college educational guidance clinic whose services are made available to high-school juniors. Thru individual inventory technics, counseling, lectures, and conferences with parents and students over a period of several days, the student appraises himself in relation to the possible pursuit of college training. A variation of this plan was described and evaluated by Heston (24). Fifty students attended the DePauw University Educational Guidance Clinic for a four-day session. Replies to a questionnaire sent to the counselees following the session indicated that 95 percent of the counselees considered the program as satisfactory and of value to them.

College Programs

An ACE committee (7) made a study of the problem of post-war college personnel, and published recommendations on selection of students, faculty counseling, vocational counseling, and miscellaneous personnel activities such as health, housing, and financial aids. Descriptions of programs on the college level were reported by publications from Michigan,

Illinois, Missouri, Texas, and Minnesota, by Donahue and Tibbetts (13), Bailey, Gilbert, and Berg (2), McKinney (37), Blackwell (6), and Foley (20). McKinney analyzed the characteristics of counselees in terms of such variables as curriculum election, size of home town, age, and sex. Blackwell compared forty students who sought counseling with a control group, and discovered the former had a gain in grade points. Foley described work with student disciplinary cases.

Another evaluative study by Toven (51) followed 188 counseled students over a period of four years and compared them with a control group. The former were superior in practically all measures.

No doubt the pressure for service has curtailed sorely needed critical studies of counseling as related to individual difference in this area and in that described below.

Veterans Administration Advisement Program

A manual of advisement and guidance by Scott (43) described the procedures and technics to be used by vocational advisers in the program. Later Scott and Lindley (44) outlined the program including informational counseling and testing procedures. Darley and Marquis (11) presented a partial report of a survey made by the Office of Psychological Personnel on the veterans administration clinics and critically evaluated the training, professional affiliations, and case loads of the personnel. Examples of follow-up studies were indicated by those of Long (36) and Brown (8). The former reported on 206 veterans at least a year following the recommended training program. Brown found that 75 percent had started their training in the objective selected, and 55 percent were still on the job after a year. Reasons why training objectives were not pursued were investigated and are published.

Programs in Industry, Government Services, and Private Agencies

Cantor (9) in his book discussed the counseling program in numerous industrial plants. Martin (38) showed how vocational guidance can operate in a prison system. The USES contributions to personnel work were briefly reviewed by Stocking (48) and its employment counseling program was outlined by Alexander (1). A representative study of vocational guidance by a social agency was found in the publication by Fornwalt (21). He described the library, testing, and service facilities provided by the Big Brothers organization in New York City.

As in other adult programs, there is a need for carefully designed studies to evaluate discretely various aspects of these programs.

Programs in Military Services

During the period covered by this review, there appeared numerous reports of the work done during World War II by the various services. These reports vary in character. Some are preliminary in nature; some merely report divisional programs and others are final reports and evaluations of the most significant accomplishments. A bibliography of nineteen volumes of the AAF Aviation Psychological Program was presented by Flanagan and his colleagues (19). They include a discussion of the classification and apparatus tests, the qualifying examination, and redistribution. These were carefully planned and present the complete story of procedures developed, predictive tests, evaluative technics produced, and facts and relationships established. They are the product of a distinguished staff and are a distinct contribution to the field. In 1944, a number of the Psychological Bulletin, which was edited by Sears (45), was devoted to "Clinical Psychology in the Military Services." Numerous programs at various installations are described, presenting in many cases evaluations of and data from the programs.

Stuit (50) edited a volume which presents a history of personnel research and test development in the Bureau of Navy Personnel. In this he includes an account of the Bureau's selection, classification, and training programs. This represents the kind of contribution made by the Navy in this field during the war.

Two articles, which gave briefer and perspective treatments of war programs and their addition to personnel work in general, are by Flanagan (18) and Hunter (26). Davis (12), under the auspices of the ACE, described the procedures used to classify men in the armed services and discusses the implications of these procedures for civilian life. Grace (23) similarly presented some of the results of an evaluation of military classification and placement practices for educational programs.

The publications of this period show expansion of personnel programs in various institutions. The work of the larger agencies, particularly of the armed services, has had the result of promoting critical conferences on programs and emphasis on their evaluation. There is a greater need, however, to move beyond mere description and general evaluation to studies of variables in counseling as related to individual differences.

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CHAPTER IV

Appraisal of the Individual

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RESEARCH approaches to the problem of individual appraisal during the past three years have shown a number of significant trends. There has been a marked increase in emphasis on the development and validation of measures of emotional and social adjustment. Three instruments have received particular attention: The Rorschach Ink Blot Test, Murray Thematic Apperception Test, and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Related to this trend is a very large number of studies reporting attempts to develop new projective approaches. Recent research also reflected an interest in expressive approaches to appraisal with sociometric methods receiving the principal attention. Increased reliance on appraisal approaches which do not yield completely objective results and attention to qualitative aspects of traditional methods characterized many studies. It is not clear whether this reflects a trend away from an experimental orientation in counseling and clinical work or the emergence of a new level of professional work.

A major trend in research has been increased attention to intra-individual differences and their usefulness in making clinical judgments and developing insights. Analysis of profiles, attention to scatter, and consideration of configuration of test results characterized this trend. Unfortunately, the lack of statistical methods for dealing adequately with intra-individual differences has hindered this significant line of research in appraisal. Meehl (64) has proposed a system for classifying Multiphasic Inventory profiles which should provide useful research leads. Other studies seemed to depend on intuitive analysis. No significant studies using the method of factor analysis with tests as populations appeared during the last three years. Not unrelated to emphasis on the profile was an increased interest in the measurement of narrow aspects of ability and personality. Factor studies have contributed materially in this regard, with the methods of factorial analysis used to define the areas for measurement. Another significant trend was directed toward more rapid evaluation of abilities and personality characteristics. Validation studies of abbreviated scales of various sorts were numerous. There also have been a number of attempts to draw more information from existing instruments of appraisal.

The present review is by no means comprehensive; but an attempt has been made to cover significant studies reporting these various trends, and to review research investigations which concerned themselves with problems of new and previously untried methods of appraisal and with the more fundamental problems of the nature of personality organization and the isolation of aspects of personality which should be appraised.

Appraisal in Areas of Personality and Adjustment

Approaches to appraisal of the individual which are concerned with his social and emotional adjustment have tended to dominate recent research. This trend is clearly related to the increasing participation of psychologists and counselors in what might be termed "clinical problems." Traditional methods continue to be widely used, but a number of new approaches have been suggested. Kent (52) has described a series of eight tasks to be used with the Dearborn Form Board, Number Three. A demonstration board precedes the series which is scaled to increase rapidly in difficulty. An advantage of this series of tasks is that they are scored by the number of moves required. It thus becomes a power test and is somewhat more easily interpreted. Four tests for the evaluation of brain injury have been studied by Armitage (3) who found none of them completely satisfactory. The Shipley-Hartford Retreat Scale and the Hunt-Minnesota Scale for Organic Brain Damage were found to be almost valueless. The Wechsler Mental Ability Scale was found to be useful, but has the disadvantage of being too lengthy, and some of the sub-tests are not suitable for use with organic damage cases. The Rorschach Ink Blot Test was found to be the most useful. Armitage proposed a screening test with five sub-tests in a battery. Used with forty-four brain injured patients, it distinguished them satisfactorily from forty-five normals and sixteen psychoneurotics. A malingering key for mental tests was devised by Goldstein (36) to be used in the military situation. The principles which he developed can probably be applied to almost any test of mental ability. Taking advantage of the average subject's inability to estimate the passing grade of the test and the difficulty of items, malingering is indicated by discrepancies among easy items failed and difficult items passed. Jacobson (48) has suggested an interview approach to the estimation of psychobiologic functioning. Subjects are asked to respond to right-left orientation tests of graded complexity. Pictures rather than verbal instructions were used. He found that this approach made it possible to observe subjects in a number of critical situations.

Questionnaires and Personal Documents

Questionnaire approaches to the study of personality continue to be widely used. Several studies were concerned with improving the validity of this approach. Meehl and Hathaway (65) have given careful attention to the problem of unconscious bias on the part of subjects when taking the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. In addition to the checks on validity which were previously developed, they suggest the use of a scoring key for this factor which they have called the K factor. It appears that when applied it would elevate the scores of subjects who unconsciously

responded in their own favor, and altho it is theoretically concerned also with the person over-critical of self, it is not clear how this tendency can be corrected. Cross (21) has experimented with a braille edition of the Minnesota Multiphasic in hope that the usefulness of this instrument could be extended. Fischer (30) investigated the possibility that subjects would be more frank when their responses to a problem check list were anonymous, but he found no significant differences between signed and unsigned check lists in the instances of problems underlined in any area or in total score.

After reviewing personality testing by questionnaires over a broad range, Ellis (26) was impressed with the generally unsatisfactory results. To investigate one possible source of difficulty he compared the use of direct and indirect phrasing in personality questionnaires. Thirty-six widely used items were varied in four ways, two direct and two indirect. Using several orders of presentation, he tried out these questions in all four forms with forty behavior children and 221 unselected school children in grades seven and eight. No one form of item construction appeared to differentiate significantly between problem children and normal subjects. Some differences in results related to order of presentation and other variables point to the need for further investigation. Tuckman (98) made a study of the relationship between questionnaire results and subjective estimates using the Bell Adjustment Inventory. His subjects included 191 high-school boys, 200 high-school girls, fifty-one unemployed men, and forty-five unemployed women. He found the ratings on the Bell Inventory tended to be somewhat higher than self-ratings. Working in the military situation Hildreth (46) developed a questionnaire scale inquiring about psychological changes during the service. The questionnaire is frank in its approach and would appear to be useful only with cooperating subjects. Used with 349 hospital patients, it appeared to differentiate significantly among clinical groups.

The analysis of personality documents and case records as an approach to appraisal has received some attention during the past triennium. To compare autobiographical material with Thematic-Apperception test stories, Combs (18) analyzed data obtained from forty-six university students. He found much overlap in material obtained from the TAT and from the autobiography with respect to motives and desires. It was found that the TAT revealed more desires and attitudes of the individual, which can be related to the present and future, and that it was also more successful at uncovering socially unacceptable and violent categories of desire.

A significant attempt to measure tension in written documents was reported by Dollard and Mowrer (23). A discomfort-relief quotient was developed from a ratio of discomfort material and relief material in case notes. Whether words, phrases, or sentences were used as units, results were the same. The quotient appeared to fluctuate with case progress and may be a useful approach in estimating progress in therapy.

The Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Tests

It would be inappropriate in this review to attempt any comprehensive treatment of the very extensive literature which deals with projective devices for the study of personality and adjustment. General research in the area of projective methods was effectively covered for the triennium ending in July 1946 by Hertz, Ellis, and Symonds (45). The present discussion will, therefore, deal briefly with the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Tests in terms of (a) their validity for individual appraisal and (b) their application to new areas of appraisal.

Because of the complexity and subjectivity involved in scoring the classical Rorschach test, numerous attempts have been made to develop objective systems for group examination. Perhaps the most important of these was the multiple-choice Rorschach of Harrower-Erickson. Its validity as a screening device has been frequently checked with generally negative results. After an extensive study, Malamud and Malamud (59) reported that the test did not differentiate satisfactorily between normal and abnormal populations and suggested various improvements in scoring.

Broad evidence of the validity of the Rorschach technic when used with children was furnished by Swift (93), who utilized a comparison of behavior descriptions and Rorschach protocols. In a much more comprehensive study, Ford (32) reported on the use of Rorschach methods with 123 children. Test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from 0.38 to 0.86 for various factors and the incidence of color response was significantly related to behavior ratings made by teachers. However, she cautioned that the Rorschach patterns of young children differ from those of older subjects. An interesting study showing how the pattern of Rorschach response may be affected by social environment was reported by Kimble (53). Subjects tended to be more extravertive when examined in a public place. A definitely experimental effort to validate certain aspects of the Rorschach test was reported by Williams (103). Using very careful controls, he established the tolerance of subjects to situations involving considerable stress. Differentials in withstanding stress were significantly related to expected differentials in the Rorschach patterns.

Numerous attempts have been made to use the Rorschach method for specialized predictions such as are frequently made in general counseling. In one such study, Balinsky (7) found that the multiple-choice group Rorschach was not adequate as a device for screening out unsatisfactory applicants for employment. After analysing the Rorschach records of 177 enlisted men, Linn (56) concluded that certain signs tended to differentiate superior and poor soldiers but that the whole personality of the enlisted man differed somewhat from that of civilian populations. Evidence of the relationship of certain Rorschach responses to the school achievement of defective girls was presented by Abel (1). The most ambitious study of the Rorschach test in an academic situation was reported by Munroe (67).

She used an adjustment rating based upon her simplified scoring of the test as a measure for predicting scholastic success at Sarah Lawrence College. While not significantly related to scores on the American Council Psychological Examination, the Rorschach adjustment rating was slightly more highly related to academic success than scores on the test of scholastic aptitude. After using the Rorschach in military settings, Benton (8) concluded that it might be of value in the discovery of malingerers, since they tended to display a characteristic pattern of response. An extensive investigation of the Rorschach patterns of various pre-professional and professional groups was made by Kaback (51). She found significant differences among accountants and pharmacists but stated that these were not great enough to be of much value in prediction. From the standpoint of general appraisal in counseling, the studies of Munroe and Kaback are especially significant.

The Murray Thematic Apperception Test in its present form appears less likely than the Rorschach test to become a broadly useful method of individual appraisal, altho it has been subjected to considerable study. Several reports on its reliability have been made. Mayman and Kutner (61) separately scored ninety-one stories by eleven subjects and reported correlation coefficients of 0.91 and 0.83 respectively for ratings based upon empathy with characters and emotional involvement, and a contingency coefficient of 0.56 for estimates of behavior trends. Higher contingency coefficients for ratings by two judges were reported by Harrison and Rotter (42). An article by Jacques (49), in which he describes the use of TAT's in the Canadian Army, is representative of the general tendency to consider the measure as essentially a clinical and therapeutic instrument.

Other Projective and Expressive Devices

Many investigators have reported the development and use of measures involving projection or expression. A number of these made use of pictures and drawings. Rosenzweig (77) described a picture-association method based upon twenty-four cartoon-like pictures. Each presented two individuals, one of whom is in a frustrating situation. The subject indicates verbal responses the individual would make and the test is scored in terms of direction of aggression, obstacle dominance, ego-defense, and need persistence as revealed by the responses. Wekstein (102) developed a set of cards depicting fantastic or mythological figures and involving action, varied facial expressions, color and chiaroscuro elements. He believes these figures may elicit more response from subjects than the TAT pictures. Temple and Amen (95) prepared figures with blank spaces into which the subject could fit either happy or anxious faces. When used with children between three and seven years of age, the devices appeared to elicit projection. Sex and grade differences were discovered, but no significant differences between groups of normal children and clinical cases. Munroe,

Lewinsohn, and Waehner (68) reported a comparison of group Rorschach results, drawings produced in an expressive art technic and handwriting analyses. The combination of several methods appeared to provide an understanding of the individual superior to that gained from any single method. Elkish (25) studied the drawings made by a group of children over an eight-year period and reported a technic for appraising personality thru the rating of various qualities expressed in the drawings.

The validity of handwriting as an expressive measure of personality was studied by Eysenck (27). He had a competent graphologist make judgments about the characteristics of a group of male neurotics upon the basis of their handwriting. Altho she had little success in estimating intelligence, the graphologist made judgments on a better-than-chance basis. Her matching of character sketches and handwriting produced a contingency coefficient of 0.46.

Rotter and Willerman (78) suggested the use of incomplete sentences as a method of studying personality. Forty incomplete sentences were used with the request that the subject express his real feeling in completing them. They were scored by grouping responses into three categories: conflict or unhealthy, positive or healthy, and neutral. When used with 200 hospital patients, good scoring reliability was found and high validity in differentiating among men in different categories of adjustment. It was reported that well adjusted subjects tended to make humorous or innocuous responses. This finding, with an open ended test, gives some clues concerning needed research with the more completely structured questionnaire measures. Sargent (80) has developed a personality test which presents everyday conflict situations in verbal form. Little elaboration is used in the hope that projection by subjects will be made easier. The test is scored by feeling categories, cognitive expressions, miscellaneous indicators, and conflict solutions. It appears to have good scoring reliability and probably deserves extensive consideration. It would appear to be best adapted to use at the upper educational levels. An interesting appraisal technic was reported by Porteus (75) who developed a scale for measuring the stability and quality of Maze drawings. This measure was fairly independent of Maze test age and it proved surprisingly effective in differentiating delinquents from non-delinquents and successful workers from poor workers.

Abbreviated Scales, Profile Analysis, and Clinical Studies

Development of rapid methods for evaluating intellectual and personal characteristics was greatly stimulated by the war. Research took the lines both of shortening existing devices and developing new measures. Representative of such research is a study by Shotwell and McCulloch (88) using the Stanford-Binet, form L. Working with 100 institutionalized epileptics, they demonstrated that either of two methods of shortening the test was generally satisfactory. Saving of 47 percent was effected by the short scale.

When full testing was carried thru at basal and ceiling ages, 22 percent saving was shown. There were no significant differences in obtained mean scores. Numerous abbreviations of the Wechsler-Bellevue have been reported. Springer (91), Cummings, MacPhee, and Wright (22), and Geil (35) report such studies. Each of these investigators used a different set of sub-tests, and some variations in weighting to estimate IQ, but correlation coefficients with total scale range from .93 to .97 for each. Administration of Goodenough's Draw A Man Test to adult men of low intelligence as a rapid screening device was reported by Berdie (10) to give good results. Requiring only five or ten minutes to give and score, it was shown to be objective and reliable.

Attention has been increasingly directed toward intra-individual differences as they are revealed by varied performance on the sub-tests of a scale. In intelligence testing this has been termed "scatter" and certain personality differences seem to accompany such variability.

Analyses of a similar sort have been made frequently using personality scales which can be scored for more than one variable. Schmidt (85) has reported a series of such studies. Responses on individual Rorschach tests were scored, and plotted on a profile after conversion to T-score values. With sixty-four normal enlisted men and 178 psychiatric cases he found characteristic profiles which were effective in differential diagnosis. In a study of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, Schmidt and Billingslea (83) found its sensitivity was greatly increased when it was employed as an integrated instrument. Using profile analysis they were able to eliminate nearly all overlapping scores between a group of normal enlisted men and enlisted men referred because of difficulties in adjustment. Schmidt (84) and Meehl (64) made similar studies with the Minnesota Multiphasic which point toward the usefulness of global impressions or profile analysis in distinguishing among psychiatric groups.

Investigation of broad groups of desires which underlie generalized behavior trends has been suggested by Gregory (39) as a fruitful starting point in counseling. These "teleonomic trends" are classified into six groups, and are subject to quantification thru several approaches: analysis of pleasant-unpleasant experiences, interviews, autobiography, observation, rating scales, tests or questionnaires. Analysis of these trends and clarification of conflicts among them point toward therapy. Spiegel, Shor, and Fishman (90) report an experiment in which a subject was regressed hypnotically in age to successive early levels, with intelligence testing applied while under hypnosis. The results seem little short of miraculous, with a reasonable curve of the growth of intelligence for the individual reconstructed over the entire developmental period. Checks made possible by case history data indicated that the results were valid. Three appraisal technics were used by Harris and Christiansen (41) to predict response of patients to brief psychotherapy. The subjects were fifty-three patients suffering from delayed convalescence to physical injury or disease. Tested prior

to treatment, they were divided into groups with good, poor, or indifferent prognosis. The Wechsler-Bellevue scale did not differentiate among the groups, but both the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Rorschach Test did so. Profiles obtained from the MMPI were clearly differentiable; usual Rorschach scoring did not differentiate, but differences among the groups were demonstrated empirically, and over-all judgments gave good results.

Appraisal in Education

Traditional test approaches continue to be the most widely used method in education for appraisal of the individual whether for selection, placement, guidance or the measurement of educational outcomes. Peterson (74) has suggested a different kind of measure of scholastic aptitude which appears to work well compared with the standard tests in this field. Crawford and Burnham (19) describe extensive experience with a battery of differential educational aptitude tests. Six tests are in the battery including a traditional scholastic aptitude test, and tests of verbal reasoning, quantitative reasoning, mathematical aptitude, spatial visualizing, and mechanical ingenuity. Their study covers several years experience with the college training program of the Navy at Yale. The problem of measuring high grade intelligence has been studied by Heim (44) who described construction of a test steeply graded in difficulty including verbal, number, and space relations items. He found that as difficulty was increased speed was reduced as a factor producing variance, even tho rather strict time limits were held.

Pace (73) prepared a test to measure the ability of students to apply educational theory to practice. Twenty-five situations were used as a basis for eliciting student responses. Some disagreement among judges as to what would constitute the most appropriate response underscores a common difficulty in measuring broader educational outcomes. This problem of appraisal in education has been given comprehensive treatment from the point of view of the measurement of understanding by the National Society for the Study of Education. (69) In Part I of its forty-fifth yearbook, various problems are discussed and numerous suggestions are made for the improvement of measurement. This is a valuable contribution to all who are concerned with the problems of measuring achievement.

The place of a personality questionnaire in vocational guidance was discussed by Harmon and Wiener (40). Their study was oriented toward advisement of veterans in the training program of the Veterans Administration. Differential performance on the sub-tests of a personality test were pointed to as significant for differential guidance. Illustrative case histories were presented.

Two new approaches to the problem of interest measurement have been reported. Gregory (38) presented data concerning an academic interest test developed in a manner similar to the Strong Vocational Interest Blank,

but with items referring to topics studied or operations performed in classes and criterion groups of students majoring in various subjects. Expected sex differences were found, and congruence with logical expectations from students following various curriculum indicated satisfactory validity. Retest reliability appeared high enough to justify its use in individual prediction. Seibert (87) used Van Allyn's Job Qualification Inventory with 168 freshmen at Green Mountain College, and found it differentiated well among curriculum groups. In this instrument claimed interests are verified by data concerning training and experience.

Rating scales and other nontest approaches in education continue to play an important role for appraisal purposes. Voelker (99) has described the rating plan used with exceptional children in the Detroit system. Six traits are rated at regular intervals: sociability, participation in class activities, consideration for others, tenacity of purpose, trustworthiness, and reaction to authority. Forms for indicating whether a student is working "at expectancy" or "below expectancy," and whether he is "at or above grade" or "below grade" have been used in a program described by Lantz (54). Three schools were studied to see if these forms helped to produce better adjustment. They appeared to be most effective when the teachers were aided in their use.

Tschectelin (97) used rating scales in an extensive study of pupils who rated both themselves and other students. Comparisons were made which revealed that boys consistently underrated themselves while girls rated themselves higher than they were rated either by other girls, by boys, or by their teachers. The factors which lie behind these differences would appear to provide an interesting set of problems for future research. Physical fitness among college women was studied by Mohr (66), who described her search for satisfactory tests and the success which attended the use of certain physical tasks as tests.

Problems of Prediction

Reported studies dealing with the prediction of academic achievement are very numerous and, in most cases, of relatively slight value to individual appraisal. Many such investigations were reviewed by Carter (13) for the triennium ending in July 1946. The present treatment will be confined to special phases of prediction related to (a) philosophy, (b) use of relatively untried measures, (c) prediction in relatively new areas, (d) long-range prediction and (e) new or relatively untried methods.

At the close of the last triennium, Sarbin (79) presented a thoro exposition of his contention that the only scientifically satisfying predictions are those based upon probability. He termed these actuarial or statistical predictions, offered some evidence of their superiority to clinical predictions and suggested that intuitive or clinical predictions actually resided upon implicit systems of probability. His arguments were analysed by Chain

(15) who defended the clinical approach as logically sound and noted a place for the intuitive psychologist.

Extensive use at Pennsylvania State College of the Thurstone Primary Abilities Tests was reported by Goodman (37). Combinations of the Thurstone tests appeared to predict academic achievement about as efficiently as more classical tests of scholastic aptitude. Tests of the Thurstone verbal factor were generally most highly correlated with achievement. Crawford and Burnham furnished one of the first reports on the use of Armed Forces Institute General Educational Development Tests for academic prediction (20). When used with a group of Yale students, total GED score correlated 0.72 with the average of all College Entrance Examination Board Tests. The two batteries were about equally effective in predicting scholastic marks. Frandsen (33) presented a study of the effectiveness of interest measures for the prediction of school achievement. His original findings agreed with the results of other investigators who discovered little relationship between scores on the Kuder Preference Record and measures of achievement. Votaw (100) reported that a test of information about library and study materials was slightly more effective than a scholastic aptitude test in the prediction of freshmen marks at a Texas State college. Thirty-three items in a questionnaire were used by Bittner (11) to predict the probability of entrance to college. He found that a few items carried the entire weight of prediction and secured results comparable to those derived from tests of aptitude and achievement.

In predicting rated success in learning modern dance movements, Benton (9) secured a multiple correlation coefficient of 0.837 from seven measures of physical capacity. Potts (76) reported a predictive correlation coefficient of 0.406 between the nursing aptitude tests developed by the Psychological Corporation and three-year averages made in training. A very ambitious effort to develop systems for the appraisal of teaching success in the French Department at Wisconsin University was reported by Cheydleur (16). The evolution of objective criteria of success in teaching would greatly increase the significance of prediction in this area. Seagoe (86) followed teachers into the field and compared their rated success with test scores determined when they began the study of education at the University of California in Los Angeles. She found that personality tests and judgments of training teachers were significantly related to success in the field.

Long-range prediction studies which provided for the accurate forecasting of individual status in future training programs would be very helpful to counselors. In a study of children in primary grades, Allen (2) found significant but rather low correlations between Kuhlmann-Anderson tests given in the first grade and achievement tests given in the third and fourth grades. Relationships were not adequate for individual prediction. Weber (101), working at the University of Minnesota, discovered reasonably high correlation between IQ's determined during secondary school and scores on the American Council Psychological Examination. His findings are of

limited value because they involved an experimental form of the ACE, but his exploratory study illustrates a needed type of research.

Before the beginning of the last triennium, a simple method for expressing effort or relative achievement was suggested by Tsao (96). He proposed an F quotient based upon the ratio of actual achievement to achievement predicted from a measure of intelligence. Hartson (43) determined F quotients for entering students at Oberlin College and discovered that college marks could be predicted with greatest accuracy for those of average to superior relative achievement.

Appraisal in Industry

In industry, as in education, objective tests continue to be relied on as the principal method of appraisal when the problem is that of prediction of future success. Industry suffers more than education, however, from the lack of satisfactory criteria of over-all success. Fewer studies on the problem of defining adequate criteria appeared during the last three years than might have been hoped for. McPherson (63) described the development of a model for use in measuring achievement in woodworking. It was an effective aid in training, but it might also have been used for selection purposes.

A comprehensive review of the use of manipulative tests in industry has been made by Long and Lawshe (57). They concluded that such tests are not as widely used today as was expected twenty-five years ago. The most common use is for selection and placement at the semi-skilled level. It is their judgment also that progress has been retarded by the lack of adequate criteria. Steel, Balinsky, and Lang (92) used a work sample in a battery of dexterity tests with eighty-six clients of the New York City Vocational Advisory Service. They found it provided better motivation than relatively pointless dexterity tests. Significant sex differences, however, point toward differential experience as a factor in producing variance. Improvement in the methods of selecting salesmen is reported by Flemming and Flemming (31). Six pencil and paper tests yielding thirty-four sub-test scores were used with 583 men tested for sales positions with twelve companies. Mental ability, personality, and interest measures were combined with the results subjected to analysis in terms of patterns related to the specific kind of sales position under consideration. Effectiveness of this approach was indicated by excellent agreement of test results with success for two representative groups. Dorcus (24) made a study of the effectiveness of personality questionnaires in detecting unsatisfactory workers in industry. One questionnaire had been validated on psychiatric populations as an adjustment scale, the other was a measure of traits isolated by factor methods. When used with forty-eight employees, both tests gave about the same results, detecting approximately 75 percent of subjects rated as unsatisfactory.

Interviewing continues to be an important appraisal tool for industry, and numerous articles offer suggestions for its improvement. However, few penetrating research studies of the interview have been made recently. Newman, Bobbitt, and Cameron (72) reported a study which showed that use of adequate supplementary objective data and careful training of interviewers greatly increased the accuracy of interviewing judgments. It was their conclusion that, with proper controls, the interview can be as reliable as the usual personality test. Improvement of the counseling interview by bringing the client into more active participation was suggested by Brotemarkle. (12)

Merit rating scales continue to be the most widely used method of appraisal for employees on the job, and also constitute the most popular criterion of success against which selection devices are tested. Mahler (58) made a survey of the rating practices in 125 companies. In most cases a scale was used, with check lists used in twelve companies and ranking or grading in seven. There was little agreement as to what characteristics should be judged. A fourteen item rating chart used with 143 field engineers by eleven district managers was analyzed by Balanovich (5). Six factors were found to account for the principal variance: attendance to detail, ability to do present job, sales ability, conscientiousness, organizing tendency, and social intelligence. The ratings had a correlation of 0.83 with recommendations for promotion.

Sociometric rating methods have been tried with success in several industrial situations. Jacobs (47) reported a study of office personnel, in which seventeen girls were asked to make sociometric ratings of their associates. The findings furnished excellent leads for handling personnel problems. Congruence of the sociograms with results on a personality test led to increased confidence in this approach.

Selection and Appraisal of Personnel

Selection of personnel and prediction of job success continues to receive widespread attention among research workers. Wood (106) has suggested use of a specially designed application blank for all employees. These can then be rapidly and objectively evaluated by using templates prepared in terms of job analyses for efficient differential selection and placement. Sartain (82) found that aptitude tests could be utilized in the selection of aircraft factory inspectors. McDaniel and Reynolds (62) employed three aptitude tests with students in training for mechanical work and obtained a multiple correlation coefficient with the criterion of instructors' ratings of 0.47. Using the Kent-Shakow Industrial Formboard series, Newman (71) found a correlation of 0.75 with the progress of 101 male patients in a tuberculosis sanatorium being given rehabilitation training in wood-working. Lennon and Baxter (55) used a checklist as a criterion of success in clerical work, and found that a learning ability test and a clerical aptitude

test satisfactorily predicted items related to understanding of the work, quantity and speed of work, performance of multiple tasks, and unnecessary duplication of work effort, but failed to predict ratings on items related to errors in performance, typing, shorthand, grammar and spelling, statistical work, checking one's work, orderliness, attitude toward work, and "personality" traits.

Problems of occupational adjustment in relation to emotional difficulties were studied by Jacques and Crook (50) with a population of 150 soldiers, diagnosed as neurotic or psychopathic. Assessment of personality was made thru a study of overt needs. Six syndromes were defined related to areas of optimal occupational adjustment. Allocated in relation to personality makeup these soldiers adjusted well to a wide range of jobs in the army. Implications for civilian vocational orientation were noted. Newer (70) used an "expectancy" rating scale with relief clients of a social agency. Sixteen characteristics were considered to be related to employability. The validity of the scale was shown by a correlation of 0.72 between scores and employment during a period of two and one-half years.

Considerable attention has been directed to the problem of appraising supervisory and administrative personnel. Sociometric technics reviewed above have been found useful. Test results continue to be somewhat equivocal. Shuman (89) and Sartain (81) reported studies of supervisory personnel in the aircraft industry. Shuman found moderate relationships between tests and success when mental ability and special aptitude tests were used. Sartain found no significant relationships either with similar tests or with measures of personality and interest. File and Remmers (29) presented evidence which seemed to indicate that their test of supervisory ability works well in industry. Mandell and Adkins (60) reported the use of a battery of written tests for selecting administrators in government service.

Theoretical Studies

Exploratory or theoretical studies supply the foundations upon which new methods of appraisal are constructed. Major trends in contemporary research have already been noted. A few significant investigations, selected from many exploratory studies, will be briefly considered in this concluding section of the review.

A long and careful treatment of the dynamics involved in forming impressions of people was presented by Asch (4). He reported an extensive series of experiments during which descriptive trait names were read to subjects whose reactions were judged by rating scales and protocols. Cattell (14) has made a comprehensive analysis of traits and trait clusters and listed twelve major factors which may well be the basis for subsequent measurement. A significant investigation of the interrelationships among traits within individual children was reported by Baldwin (6). Friedman

(34) presented a scholarly and thoro study of the nature of values and of problems associated with their measurement which may lead the way to a renewed attack upon appraisal within this important area.

A definite contribution to the understanding of mechanical ability and manual dexterity was made by Wittenborn (104), (105) who reported the factorial analysis of data gathered in the Minnesota Study of Mechanical Ability. He discovered six principal factors associated with mechanical ability and four clear factors associated with manual dexterity.

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CHAPTER V

Counseling¹

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SINCE the chapter on this topic by Rogers (40) which appeared in the April 1945 issue of the REVIEW the literature has expanded greatly. An extensive review by Snyder (52) of the literature appeared recently in the *Psychological Bulletin* and covered the period 1940-46. It contained 426 references and dealt with the psychotherapy and counseling problem, counseling being defined as "the face-to-face relationship in which a psychologically trained individual is consciously attempting by verbal means to assist another person or persons to modify emotional attitudes that are socially maladjusted, and in which the subject is relatively aware of the personality reorganization thru which he is going." This definition is accepted for the purposes of the present review and would exclude non-verbal therapy and counseling not primarily concerned with emotional problems.

Snyder's treatment included as major headings: The Psychologist as a Counselor; Traditional Psychotherapeutic Counseling; Hypnosis; Psychoanalysis; Psychodrama; Relationship Therapy; Nondirective Therapy; Group Therapy; Theoretical Considerations.

General Trends

Since Rogers' review, several new trends in psychotherapy have appeared and many of the old ones have received increased emphasis.

The nondirective approach described by Rogers (40) has provided the basis for a major discussion in current writing. Recent case reports illustrating the technic are those by Sargent (43), Madigan (30), and Muench and Rogers (34). Opposed to the nondirective technic are those traditionally employed, which have been designated by Thorne (54) as *directive psychotherapy*. Altho recognizing certain advantages of a nondirective approach, particularly those pertaining to the relationship between therapist and counselee and the importance of insight, Thorne criticized the method on a number of counts. He pointed to the absence of systematic diagnosis, the inadequacy of case history and the superficial level of operation of the nondirective method. Thorne's original critique was followed by a series of articles which considered various aspects of directive psychotherapy such as reassurance (6), case history (55), the use of psychological tests

¹ The following members of a seminar in Therapeutic Theory and Practice assisted the authors in gathering the bibliography and in preparing abstracts: Jean Allard, Marion Jurko, Robert K. McKelvey, Ada Roth, Maxine Thornton, Arlene Tucker, and Rita Wertheimer.

(53), palliation (56), the imparting of information (57), and other methods which involve a more active role on the part of the counselor.

Lowrey (29) expressed doubt that there could be a purely nondirective therapy since by its very nature this method imposes a number of limitations on both client and counselor. Wrenn (61) questioned the implication present in nondirective writings that nondirective counseling and client-centered counseling are synonymous. He suggested certain variables in both the counselor and client which would determine the extent to which any counseling program would vary along the directive-nondirective continuum. Criteria revolving around the nature of the client are: his needs, the degree of emotional tension, the urgency, and his dependency. Criteria residing in the counselor would consider his training and versatility, the time factor, the data available to him, the nature of the referral, and his recognized function in the institution. In this vein, Moore (32) also maintained that the method was related to the personality of the counselor and the motivation of the client for modifying this status. He doubted the necessity for the verbalization of insights in the therapeutic situation. It is interesting to note that Ackerman (2), who emphasizes a comprehensive psychiatric approach, also has insisted that the emphasis should be patient—rather than therapist-oriented. Other criticisms of the nondirective method are to be found in Hahn and Kendall (20) who suggested that the method is not applicable to every client; in Anderson (5) who remarked that the technic cannot be used when the patient is not able to judge the meaning of his behavior; and in Meister and Miller (31) who indicated that the value of nondirective therapy depended upon the basic acceptance factor and that some nondirective responses may negate this variable and actually retard therapy.

Snyder (49), attempting to answer some of the criticisms by directive therapists, stated that there are cases when the nondirective method is not appropriate. However, he disapproved of mixing technics and maintained that directive therapy generally was less effective than nondirective therapy. In another article (51), he pointed out that contrary to the opinion held by some directive counselors, nondirective counseling is not a cold, impersonal procedure and does not lack warmth.

In addition to the directive-nondirective controversy, two important trends, undoubtedly stimulated by the exigencies of the military situation, are brief therapies and group therapies. The former may be based on psychoanalytic or nonanalytic principles. They may incorporate special technics such as drugs, as employed in narcoanalysis (8), and hypnosis, as utilized in hypnoanalysis (18, 60). Mention might be made of procedures with children and which indicate an increasing use of expressive therapeutics such as art and play therapy. Because of the theoretical and practical implications of some of these trends, they will be discussed in separate sections.

Brief Psychotherapy and Psychoanalysis

At present there is a widespread tendency to shorten the therapeutic process. This extends even to a modification of orthodox psychoanalytic treatment. Alexander and French (4) presented a discussion of psychoanalysis with an emphasis on the principle of flexibility, which stresses the importance of adapting therapeutic procedures to the individual case. Brief psychotherapy, as defined by these authors, ranges from a single interview to as many as sixty-five. It is interesting to note the emphasis placed on factors outside the analytic session. One might question the applicability of the term "psychoanalysis" to some of the technics described in this book and the general impression is that current psychoanalysis is incorporating many of the principles originally stressed by Rank and Adler. Berliner (10) has stated that short psychotherapy differs quantitatively from the traditional and emphasizes the importance of the present situation without the necessity for acting out central conflicts. If patients need extensive psychoanalysis the initial application of short term procedures does not affect the later use of more orthodox technics. Brief psychotherapeutic procedures which have been stimulated more directly by military needs are reported in a book by Grinker and Spiegel (19). This book also includes a description of narcosynthesis as an adjuvant to brief therapy.

Another variety of brief psychotherapy has been designated by Herzberg (23) as *active psychotherapy*, which is defined as ". . . an integration of psychoanalysis, persuasion, exertion of direct influence on the patient's milieu, and tasks to the patient."

Group Psychotherapy

The publications on group therapy have been extensive during this period, as emphasized by Rennie (39). Examination of the literature revealed considerable variation among workers as to the meaning of the term, nature of the program and type of case for which group therapy is appropriate. A recent general treatment is that by Klapman (26). In contrast to other writers, Ackerman (3) thought the group method was inappropriate for schizophrenics and suitable for persons whose conflict is externalized and social. Harms (21) attempted a classification of various meanings of the term. He indicated that it may be used to mean (a) collective therapy in which patients are grouped or put into therapeutic situations; (b) therapy in natural and social groups as mother-child or sibling groups; and (c) internal therapeutic influences in artificial group settings.

Many papers have dealt with group psychotherapy in the military services. Rome's (42) discussion is representative. The value of differential methods for various age groups was treated by Slavson (46). Analyses such as those made by Slavson (47) in another paper would enable us to judge the process and results of group therapy more adequately.

Special Technics

Miscellaneous special aids to therapy continue to appear. Most of the methods discussed are instrumental to diagnosis and release but background influences such as color and music also have been considered. The latter was treated in a paper by Birren (11). The technics for diagnosis and release vary greatly. Pepinsky (35) mentioned the use of pictures on the wall as a projective technic; Arlow and Kadis (7) finger painting as an opportunity for observation and an index of progress; Kupper (27) phonograph records of battle sounds; Schneck (44) bibliotherapy; and Kelley (25) autobiographies. The nondirective technic particularly has stimulated research on counseling. A summary of experiments on nondirective counseling was offered by Rogers (41), who considered the work up to 1946.

Research methods on nondirective therapy fall into the following major groups: (a) analysis of verbatim, usually recorded, protocols with a view toward determining to what extent the material may be categorized into various classifications, depending upon the purpose of the particular research; (b) comparison of protocols of successful and unsuccessful cases counseled by the nondirective technic, or a comparison of protocols derived from nondirective interviews with those derived from directive interviews; (c) validity studies, employing as validity criteria results on standardized personality inventories and projective technics.

Snyder (50) studied thirty recorded interviews representing the individual work of six cases and four counselors. Snyder's (52) discussion, in which he evaluated this study, suggests that the results demonstrated the following three basic principles in counseling: (a) the content of counseling interviews can be reliably classified into certain categories. Clarification of feeling and simple acceptance constitute the major categories altho there are persuasion, disapproval, approval, and encouragement; (b) the process of counseling can be an orderly rather than a casual one; (c) in nondirective counseling the client's feelings change progressively from negative to positive.

The results of an experiment by Reid and Snyder (38) would appear to question the reliability with which fifteen clinical psychologists with varying lengths of training in nondirective counseling can classify client's "feeling" responses into the twenty-four categories employed. There was relatively little agreement, only 50 percent of the counselors agreeing on the modal classification of feelings. However, counselors rated as good by their instructors tended to agree more than those rated as poor. For each client statement, counselors identified an average of five feelings and the more skilled counselors each seemed to favor certain feelings.

In another study Tindall and Robinson (58) investigated the use of the silence technic in nondirective counseling. Sixty-one recorded interviews were examined to determine the frequency of pauses and their effect.

The results were reported in terms of counselor and counselee initiated pauses and showed that counselors initiated pauses more frequently than did counsees; counselee pauses were related to termination of a topic, counselor pauses to a reorganization of their responses.

The analysis of twenty recorded interviews of one case made by Curran (14) pointed up the role of the interrelationship among different problems of the counselee as a factor in the counseling process.

Attempts to evaluate objectively the nondirective technic are to be found in Combs (13), Muench (33), and Snyder (49). The latter used a statistical comparison of the results based on one unsuccessful and four successful cases, all counseled by the nondirective method. The data indicated that with the unsuccessful case the counselor generally tended to be less of the "good" nondirective counselor as evidenced by more frequent use with this case of structuring technics and direct questions. The unsuccessful case insisted on advice and criticism and appeared to be unable to accept the method, a fact which seemed to influence the technic of the counselor.

Combs (13) obtained several measures, such as results of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, and physical fitness index, before and after nondirective counseling. Results with one case showed improvement on the Bernreuter administered one year after original treatment. In a similar fashion Muench (33) studied twelve cases using the Rorschach, the Kent-Rosanoff Free Association Test, and the Bell Adjustment Inventory. The results on these tests and the counselor's evaluation were offered as evidence for the effectiveness of nondirective counseling. Similar research and evaluation technics have been used in studies of nondirective play and group therapy (28, 16, 36).

Some of the research on so-called traditional or directive therapeutic procedures will now be considered. It is to be noted that many of these are of a clinical evaluative and follow-up character rather than of an experimental nature. Herzberg (23) reported results obtained with his method of active psychotherapy. Of the last group of 100 cases of neuroses and perversions, Herzberg judged that 48 percent were cured. It is interesting to note that 47 percent of the patients broke off treatment (after three to thirty-nine interviews). Of these, 12 percent were judged to be slightly improved and the remainder showed no improvement.

Harris and Christiansen (22) reported a study with brief psychotherapy based on psychoanalytic principles. The Wechsler-Bellevue, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, and the Rorschach were administered prior to therapy to fifty-three patients exhibiting delayed recovery from a physical disease in order to determine to what extent response to therapy could be predicted. At the conclusion of treatment, cases were rated by two or more judges (therapists and psychiatrists) as to suitability for therapy in terms of good, poor, and indifferent "prognostic groups." It is to be noted that reliability of ratings was low, a finding recognized by the authors as a limitation of their study. The intelligence variable did not

reliably differentiate favorable and unfavorable cases. Certain of the Multiphasic scales tended to differentiate the good and poor groups, reliable differences being reported for the *Psychopathic Deviate*, *Paranoia*, *Schizophrenia*, and *Psychasthenia* scales. Rorschach location, determinant, and content scores as well as results based on Munroe's inspection technic did not differentiate between the prognostic groups. An empirically derived weighted score which gave negative values to characteristics appearing more frequently in the poor prognostic group yielded a significant degree of association with clinical rating. Agreement between subjective evaluation of the Rorschach and clinical judgment was also significant. It is to be noted that the judges evaluating the Rorschach protocols were aware of the weights previously mentioned.

A comparative evaluation of different therapeutic programs has been made by Wilder (59) who examined records from various clinics, including psychoanalytic. The percentage of successes did not differ greatly from clinic to clinic and there appeared to be little variation over the years.

Group psychotherapy has been studied experimentally (24), evaluated by means of tests (37), and in terms of improvement as judged by therapist or patient (1, 9, 12, 15, 17).

Evaluation

Space does not permit a thoro critical evaluation of the present status of counseling. However, since there has been an introduction of new methods without adequate evaluation of the old, it would seem desirable to take stock. Proper evaluation of technics can result only from the application of recognized research methods. The nondirective technic has stimulated work in this direction. One must be careful to avoid confusion of technic with theory. Success or lack of success, as measured by progress criteria, may have little relation to basic theoretical formulations and more connected with specific technics and personal relationships which are themselves as yet not too well defined. For the ultimate development of a scientific understanding of the counseling process, what is needed is research which considers not only variables related to technic but also variables which are likely to lead to general formulations concerning the counseling process which may eventually be related to the existing body of psychological knowledge. An example of a preliminary theoretical formulation of this nature is that of Shaw (45) who attempted to relate the concept of insight to principles of learning.

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CHAPTER VI

Guidance Thru Groups

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THE descriptive and research literature dealing with aspects of personnel work carried on thru group activities gives evidence of growing recognition that adequate guidance of individuals requires the provision of suitable environmental conditions and of planned opportunities for learning with respect to personal development and adjustment closely interrelated with counseling. Available research dealing with these group aspects of guidance is reported here under extra-curriculum activities, group processes, and guidance thru instruction.

Extra-curriculum Activities*

The immediate postwar years have not been without interesting developments, such as the launching of the National Student Association (6) and a Carnegie grant of \$200,000 for "a systematic analysis of student development, including extra-curricular activities" at Princeton University (40). However, systematic research studies completed and reported during the period have been few. A revised edition of Strang's *Group Activities in College and Secondary School* (54) appeared in 1946. While it is little changed from the 1941 edition, it continues to be the most complete single source of summarized research for the field.

Veterans brought somewhat new social and organizational requirements to college campuses. Kohn (29) surveyed their avocational interests, reporting that one in three desired most or all of their recreation in group activities and that one in two was predominantly interested in athletic participation. Most students choosing engineering majors expressed an interest in handicraft hobbies.

A persistent problem for those concerned with group activities is that of increasing the number of participants in such programs. Williamson (59) described new organizational arrangements at one institution designed to improve this "spread" and also (60) appealed for a better recognition of the role of activities directors in balanced programs of personnel work. Burma (9) counted the participations and officerships at a small liberal arts college and noted the tendency of membership in the rather new student categories (e.g., veteran, married, off-campus residence) to inhibit participation. About 40 percent of all students at this campus were not reached by the activities program. His study corroborated older ones in noting the positive relationship of participation to good scholarship.

* Prepared by Clyde S. Johnson.

Shannon and Kittle (44) and Smith (49) presented evidence of economic discrimination, inhibiting a wider participation in activities and violating the democratic principles they are intended to serve. The former surveyed the mean monthly home rentals of pupils at an Indiana secondary school and found those of participants in sixteen of the twenty-one activities higher than that of the general student body. The latter, working with Sims Score Cards for socio-economic status, found memberships in twenty-eight out of thirty-one groups tending toward such selectivity at a large Iowa high school. Smith (48) also reported on the relationship between scores on the Bell Adjustment Inventory and participation in activities. He suggested that the extra-curriculum may defeat its own purposes by failing to reach those who need such experiences most. On the economic aspect, Stout (53) contributed an excellent summary of the costs of extra-curriculum activities, analyzing the \$1,067,381 expended in one year by 461 Iowa high schools according to size of school and on a per-pupil basis. Slifer (47) reported on the costs to undergraduates of affiliation with national fraternities.

With respect to technics for increasing the number of participants, Anderson (3) described a staggering of activities periods thruout the high-school day, instead of concentrating them in late afternoon hours, which proved wholesome. Hill (18) working with equated groups of college freshmen, found that members of the experimental group who received counseling and practical suggestions were relatively more active at the end of the year and had improved in social adjustment. Reilly and Robinson (40) suspected that the assigning of college dormitory rooms and roommates might be used as a technic to insure better social acceptance, but their sociometric study indicated otherwise. They also failed to find any significant relationships between popularity and routine data furnished on admissions forms, such as participation in high-school activities, father's occupation, size of home town, religious affiliation, vocational plans, or number of members in family. Blanchard (7), also on the basis of sociograms, found negligible differences in social acceptance between transported and nontransported pupils, a matter of rather enormous implications now that some four million children go to school by bus.

That place of residence has little or no relationship to scholastic achievement as measured by grades found new support from an analysis of the living, eating, and studying patterns of University of Arizona students, reported by Wood (63). However, the important educational contributions of the college residence hall, especially those in the area of human relations, were described by Thompson (57). Her doctoral dissertation discussed the processes of social interaction in group living which are said to yield democratic values. From her visits to fifty-five different student unions, Humphreys (21) prepared a useful handbook on such "social laboratories," describing the history, going programs, and significance of these centers in college life. The increasingly cordial relationships of

college administrators with fraternities and sororities were reviewed by Beery (5), who referred to a published summary of the opinions of college presidents on the educational values of Greek-letter societies. For the high-school level, where a reverse situation prevails, Remmlein (41) presented a state-by-state summary of current anti-fraternity legislation. Cliques and related phenomena engaged the interest of a number of research workers employing sociometric technics, including Bassett (4) and Smucker (51), who suggested their better exploitation by personnel workers for the achievement of socially desirable goals.

School Review continued to publish its useful, periodic lists of selected references on the extra-curriculum (56), most of which are philosophical or descriptive of interesting programs at particular schools. Exceptional, because of its systematic methodology, was the study of high-school assemblies reported by Edmiston and Patterson (14), which indicated differences in the ratings assigned to such programs by principals and pupils. In the area of athletics, Henning and Carter (17) employed careful measurement methods in a study of the participation in high-school football as a factor affecting college attendance and scholarship.

Of unusual interest to group guidance workers at the college level were some of the popular new books describing experimental programs in general education. Those by Roy Johnson (24) and by Henderson and Hall (16) gave substantial attention to extra-class life at Stephens and Antioch colleges respectively; that by Jones (25) grew, at least in part, out of comprehensive evaluative studies at Bennington College, including its "community government"; and the reminiscences by Burges and Johnson (23) in *Campus versus Classroom* stressed the importance of combining academic and nonacademic experiences, instead of divorcing them, if the individual is to be fully educated. For secondary schools Charters and Harvey (11) appealed for improved administrative and faculty attitudes toward the extra-curriculum program in order that "growth of the individual in a democratic environment" may be achieved.

Group Processes *

The number of published articles on group processes for the three-year period 1945-47 is just about double the total for the preceding three years. But as noted by Strang and Wollner (55), the majority of such publications deal with programs, procedures, and theory. Relatively few represent carefully controlled experiments.

Sherif and Cantril (45) have a rather complete examination of research and theory concerning socialization processes in their *Psychology of Ego-Involvements*. Klapman (27) provides information on the historical background, theories, group dynamics, and applications as well as

* Prepared by Irwin August Berg.

research in *Group Psychotherapy: Theory and Practice*. Somewhat more specialized is Moreno's Psychodrama (35) which describes the historical development, pertinent research, and therapeutic applications of psychodramatic procedures.

Group Studies for Prognostic Purposes

A significant trend in the study of group processes is the increased number of measurement studies directed at predicting behavior. Bonney (8) utilized various psychological tests in addition to social data when studying a group of elementary school, high school, and college students who were friends and another group who were nonfriends (i.e. the friendly overtures of one were rejected by another). He found that these relationships were governed neither by academic achievement nor by level of intelligence. Socio-economic background, however, played a consistent part in determining these friendships. While personality tests scores bore little relationship to friendship formation in elementary school, such scores were definitely related in high school and college. Highest relationships were found for scores made by friends on the author's own scale which measured ability to win friends. Also concerned with social acceptance was Northway's (36) test of the hypothesis that the acceptance score made by a person in one social group was a good prognosticator of the degree of acceptance that person would experience in another similar group.

A promising development is the use of a variety of clinical technics to study group tensions. MacKinnon (33) has presented a provocative program of the uses to which such technics could be put. The tension arising from wartime conditions was studied by Rose (42) who administered the *Bell Adjustment Inventory* to fifty-five college girls in 1944 and to 169 girls in 1945, providing controls over factors of age, college status, socio-economic background. The 1945 group of girls was found to be responding to frustration with psychasthenic reactions of anxiety and fatigue, believed to arise from the war situation. A less controlled study, but one of considerably greater scope and with significant implications relating to group tensions is found in the data provided by Lund and Berg (32) on the identifiability of national characteristics. These authors had twelve college students and six instructors judge the national origin and background of 1075 elementary school pupils, 1150 high school, and 650 college students from the Camden-Philadelphia area. While most European backgrounds were represented, the judges were able to estimate national origin and background with better than chance expectancy on the basis of physical appearance alone. The possibility of attitude change thru classroom instruction is illustrated in the study by Smith (50) who used the *Thurstone Attitude Scale* at the beginning and at the end of twelve one-semester sociology classes during the period

1938-43. Most classes showed a clear increase in homogeneity of attitudes at the end of the course, particularly in regard to treatment of criminals and to the law. An important change was the shift of certain extreme scores toward the middle of the distribution.

While the usefulness of group psychotherapy has long been recognized, it is only recently that systematic attempts have been made to assess quantitatively the value of such procedures. Rashkis and Shaskan (39) obtained *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory* scores from twenty-two neuropsychiatric battle casualties before and after permissive group therapy. A reduction was found in scores on the *depression*, *hysteria*, *paranoia*, and *psychasthenia* scales. Fewer score reductions were noted on the *masculinity-femininity*, *hypochondriasis*, and *schizophrenia* scales. Klopfer used the group Rorschach test with nine military patients before and after a three-week group psychotherapy program. He found that the group Rorschach could be used to measure the amount of improvement obtained from such treatment and also to separate those who would benefit from those who were not likely to benefit from therapy.

As noted in Chapter I, reference 35, the influence of mind on body has been well publicized under the general description of *psychosomatic medicine*. Yet the reverse process, the influence of body on mind (what might be called *somato-psychic*), has received far less attention. In this connection, notice may be taken of the suggestion made by Mead (34) that psychosomatic defect is related to culture as an *internal force*.

The Effect of the Group on the Individual

Most studies under this topic deal with individual personality improvement by means of group psychotherapy. Solomon and Axelrod (52), for example, found that eleven withdrawn, neurotic girls aged thirteen to fifteen and of average intelligence made rapid progress in personality development while attending weekly group sessions over an eight-month period. Similarly, Slavson, Weiner, and Scheidlinger (46) described how symptoms of serious mental pathology were eliminated and existing defects remedied thru activity group therapy with a delinquent boy. Abrahams and McCorkle (1) found that 78 percent of a group of more than 500 soldiers at an Army rehabilitation center who underwent group psychotherapy made satisfactory adjustments during a three-month period of further Army service.

Such studies reveal benefits obtained by the individual from the group. Far smaller in number are studies which analyze a possible negative effect of the group on the individual. There have been several studies of stage-fright, mob behavior, social withdrawal, delinquency, and the like, but the effect of the group upon the individual has not often been specifically examined and virtually never studied experimentally. Jenkins and Glickman (22) furnish an example of one type of approach to this problem.

They analyze statistically various socialization factors in a group of 300 delinquent boys. Of three delinquent groups classified, the most emotionally disturbed group represented boys who were the unfavored, rejected children in their families who responded with hostility and hatred. The role of empathic social identification in schizophrenia is treated at some length by Hoskins (20) in his discussion of the withdrawal symptoms of this psychosis in relation to empathy and group survival.

Effects of the Individual on the Group

Judging from an increasing number of studies being published in this category, an augmented interest in leadership and other effects of the individual on the group will be in evidence in the future. The problem of dominative and integrative behavior has been a continuing interest of H. H. Anderson, who published with Brewer (2) an analysis of the measured effects of teachers' classroom personalities in causing modification of children's behavior. They found significant changes in children's behavior in response to different teacher personalities.

Instead of permitting the group situation *per se* to influence day camp children of six to fourteen years, Dreikurs (12) employed direct methods of stimulating the social environment successfully. In analogous fashion, but with more controls, Pintler (37) varied the effects of play materials with two groups of ten children aged three to six. One group of ten children had play materials presented in carefully organized fashion while the other group had unorganized materials. Five children in each group had low-level and five had high-level experimenter participation. Exploratory and thematic play were not affected by the variables but considerably greater aggressive play was found where organization of materials was greatest and where experimenter interaction was most pronounced. Similar results were reported by Landisberg and Snyder (30) who studied the responses of four children in a play therapy group of five and six year olds. It was found that children responded more freely to nondirective than to directive counselor responses and the frequency of negative expressions eventually decreased.

Guidance Thru Instruction *

A survey of practices in 125 secondary schools of the North Central Association (58) indicated that homerooms were contributing effectively to desirable student-teacher relationships but that there was a great need for better organization of group guidance content. Wilson (62) developed criteria for the evaluation of guidance programs and reviewed research studies on the strengths and weaknesses of various technics of evaluation.

* Prepared by Georgia M. Adams and Margaret E. Bennett

Frøehlich (15) reviewed 176 studies in the evaluation of group and individual guidance. Sachs (43) made a comparative evaluation study of two programs of group guidance, one operating under a homeroom and one under a guidance-teacher plan of organization. She found that the homeroom groups tended to emphasize areas classifiable under personal and social adjustment, while the group guidance classes taught by teacher-counselors gave relatively greater emphasis to areas concerned with life-planning. Homeroom teachers, with their lower pupil-teacher counselors gave relatively greater emphasis to areas concerned with life-planning. Homeroom teachers, with their lower pupil-teacher ratio, possessed more information about pupils and had established better relationships with them, than had teacher-counselor. The achievement of pupils in information basic to personal-social adjustment, information basic to life planning, and in technics of life planning was studied. Recommendations are made concerning procedures which may be used in the evaluation of guidance programs in secondary schools.

A survey of guidance services in colleges in the North Central Association has been reported by Kamm and Wrenn (26). Several colleges and universities have reported General Education Programs in which group guidance has been synchronized with individual counseling (10, 16, 24). An evaluation by Eckert (13) of a General Education Program indicated marked values in the interrelated instruction and counseling.

Several reports of orientation methods in the Armed Forces in World War II and of group therapy have implications for educational practices (31, 61). Investigations of the needs and problems of students have served as bases for the organization of courses in group guidance (19, 64).

Needed Research

Continued investigation is needed in the following areas:

1. Evaluation directed toward analysis of what guidance activities can best be conducted thru individual counseling, thru General Education, and thru group instruction by specially trained guidance workers.
2. Investigations of the requisites as to training, experience, and personal qualities for teachers and personnel workers who participate and lead in instructional and other group aspects of guidance.
3. Study of the contributions from other disciplines, such as group psychotherapy, to the development of more functional group guidance programs for all students.

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CHAPTER VII

Educational and Vocational Information

WALTER J. GREENLEAF

I. Educational Information

THIS chapter is devoted largely to researches of national coverage carried out by governmental agencies.

For a second time in contemporary history, World War veterans are receiving educational benefits from the federal government. Under the GI acts, Public Laws 16 and 346, the influx of these veterans into the schools and colleges thruout the country has affected every community. Veteran education has actually changed our old notion of cloistered campuses and tutorial systems. Mass education has become the rule. Married students are not only acceptable on college campuses, but housing is provided for their families.

College Enrolments

In 1947, the fall enrolment (75) of all full-time and part-time resident students in 1732 colleges and universities amounted to 2,338,226 or a 12.5 percent gain over the previous year (2,078,095). For men students, the gain was 17 percent, compared with a 2.8 percent gain for women. If veterans only are considered, there were 1,122,738 enrolled in 1947, or a 4 percent gain over the previous year (1,080,396 in 1946). The number enrolling for the first time in any college fell off by 15 percent, 592,846 in 1947, compared with 696,419 in 1946. These college enrolments represent an all-time high.

What proportion of these college students will be graduated after a four-year period in higher education is a matter for conjecture. A number of researches tend to show that the veteran is a better student now than before war service (92). Researches have also shown that 47 percent of college freshmen survive thru senior year and are graduated. This means that more than half of college freshmen will probably drop out before graduation (79).

College Costs

This great influx of students to the colleges, coupled with current high living costs, has resulted in raising the costs of going to college. Board bills have been pushed up, dormitory living has been congested, and dining hall etiquette has been sacrificed in many overcrowded institutions. Tuition and fees have increased to the point where many future young high-school graduates must forego a college education unless some means is found in

the next few years to relieve the burden of expense that is sure to fall upon many families in the middle and lower brackets of income. A survey of tuition and fees in 120 colleges and universities (99) pointed out that college and university tuition and fees are now at the highest point in history; that they will increase more by the fall term of 1947-48; and that additional revenue necessary for balanced budgets in the future will probably come thru government aid and increased endowments. The average tuition and fees in 54 institutions for men or for coeds advanced from \$366 (prewar) to \$430 in 1946-47, or 24.6 percent. In 11 women's colleges, comparative figures were from \$515 to \$596, or 23.4 percent increase. In 33 state supported institutions relative figures were from \$116 (prewar resident rate) to \$122; non-resident rates rose 25.5 percent.

Percent distribution by cumulative income classes in selected education groups of native white males 25-64 years old without other income in 1939 for the United States: 1940

Income 1939 (Wage or salary)	Years of school completed (percent)				
	None	7 and 8 yrs. grade school	4 yrs. high school	4 yrs. or more college	All levels
Less than \$500.....	53%	19%	8%	4%	17%
\$500-\$1,000.....	27	26	18	8	23
1,000-1,500.....	11	25	26	16	24
1,500-2,000.....	5	17	23	20	18
2,000-2,500.....	2	8	13	18	9
2,500 and over.....	2	5	12	34	9
Total percent.....	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

The table should be read as follows (top-left): For 1939, more than half (53 percent) of workers with no schooling earned less than \$500 a year. It is wrong to predict that half of those with no schooling will earn less than \$500 a year.

Education, Income, and Jobs

For the United States as a whole, the Bureau of the Census, by means of a 5 percent sample, reported on educational attainment by income (1). These statistics are probably the first comprehensive data of their kind. The wage or salary income in 1939 by years of school completed is based on an analysis of 1940 census statistics for native white and Negro males 25-64 years old, who received less than \$50 from sources other than wages or salary.

"Among such native white males completing only seven or eight years of grade school, almost a fifth received less than \$500 in wages or salary, and about one-twentieth earned \$2500 and over. In contrast, of those completing college, about 4 percent earned less than \$500 and over a third earned \$2500 and over."

Median wage or salary income increased with added educational attainment almost without exception in every age group shown for the United States and for urban and rural-nonfarm areas. The findings are briefly

summarized in the following table, but interpretation of these figures must be made with care.

The educational level, age, and rental value of home was also studied (2). Of the 33 million men and 33 million women reporting (18-64 years old), 47 percent both of the men and of the women owned their own homes. This percent or higher applied generally to the men with four years of high school or more, and to college women. The percentage was lower for men and women 25-34 years of age at all levels of education. Of the group 45-64 years of age, the percentage was higher for those in all levels of education. By selecting from these statistics data on the 18- and 19-year-old male group, information was obtained concerning their choice of major occupation groups. The following summary shows the percentage of men that had four years of high-school training or better by occupation groups:

Major occupation groups of 18- and 19-year-old males who had had four years of high school or more.

Major Occupation Group	Number 18- 19-year- old males	Percent with 4 years high school or more
Farm laborers and foremen.....	276,000	19
Operatives and kindred workers.....	207,000	37
Clerical, sales, and kindred workers.....	158,000	71
Laborers, except farm and mine.....	104,000	30
Service workers.....	86,000	36
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers.....	51,000	42
Farmers and farm managers.....	33,000	22
Professional and semiprofessional workers.....	11,000	73
Proprietors, managers, and officials.....	9,000	59
Not reported.....	19,000	42
Total 18- and 19 year-olds, males.....	954,000	28

The Choice Of A School Or College

After a vocational counselor has worked with a student to the point where a vocational objective is chosen, the next important question to be settled is "Where is training offered?" In the past, many a counselor has been stumped for an answer. The well-known professions present no problem because a number of accrediting associations approve institutions for training in their respective fields. For the less well-known professions, semiprofessions, trades and skilled work, the counselor must watch his step in recommending schools or colleges.

Most large cities and many small ones have offered vocational training in the public schools. Thousands of students from local rather than out-of-state areas have enrolled in such courses as: agriculture, aircraft mechanics, auto mechanics, barbering, business, cosmetology, drafting, dressmaking, electric wiring, machine shop, printing, sheetmetal work, woodshop, and other work. Private trade and vocational schools, managed for profit, have offered courses in: accountancy, art, beauty culture, business, dancing, diesel mechanics, drafting, electricity, music, photography, radio, speech, watchmaking, and other occupations.

No single source or directory has ever been published that carries general information about even a majority of the trade schools and institutions that train in the minor professions. Few agencies attempt to approve such institutions for training. However, the state department of education in each state has listed and approved many institutions within their boundaries for GI training. In addition, a number of sources of information, including certain school and college directories that have resulted from painstaking research, have been published recently. (76, 77, 100, 96, 94, 97, 99, 101, 93, 95)

II. Vocational Information

Vocational information is largely concerned with research in the occupations. Occupational research for the most part is carried on by agencies which have necessary funds, and facilities that are large enough and widespread enough to produce occupational patterns and trends. Outstanding occupational research is a continuing process, requiring large sums of money and many workers. Therefore, one looks to such agencies as the Bureau of the Census, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Employment Service, Apprenticeship Service, Department of Commerce, and other Federal agencies for data that cover the national and regional areas of our country. State and municipal agencies have also made limited studies of occupations.

It is customary for private groups to use national and regional data for further research in local areas, since national summaries may not apply to small communities, or to certain large regions. The use and interpretation of government statistics, as they apply to localities, furnishes a means for private agencies and individuals to continue occupational research in specific areas.

Community Occupational Surveys

The major task of a community survey is to collect detailed information about the kinds and numbers of local jobs. For instance, a community seldom knows how many clerical machine operators, mechanical engineers, welders, and other workers are used in factories, stores, professional offices, government agencies, community services, and schools. Counselors, therefore, lack this factual information when students come to them for advice.

For several years different communities, especially those in urban sections, have undertaken to study their occupational patterns. During the war years, plans for such surveys were laid aside, as in Stockton, California. As personnel and money again became available, a number of cities, including Stockton, have made active plans for surveying occupational opportunities.

In 1946, the Occupational Planning Committee of the Welfare Federation of Cleveland, Ohio, published the findings of a comprehensive survey of Cuyahoga County (98). During July 1945, the Committee, in cooperation with the War Manpower Commission and the U. S. Employment Service, undertook an occupational survey and job classification for Cuyahoga County. At first, the Committee obtained a master list of employers with eight or more employees from the Area Office of the War Manpower Commission. Then, a door-to-door canvass of business places in the country was made in a 5 percent sample of census tracts selected at random. Employers with more than 100 employees were selected for each industry. A simple questionnaire was mailed to them, and more than two-thirds of the employers replied.

Since the questionnaire gave no information on the number of persons who were employed in specific fields of work, a second questionnaire was necessary. Of 30,000 specific jobs known to exist in the United States, about 10,000 were found in Cuyahoga County. These 10,000 jobs were classified into 210 large fields of work. About 100 employers sent one or more persons to half-day training sessions. Two economic analysts selected a second sample, and more than 1000 persons participated in processing the questionnaire data. About 82 per cent of the workers in Cuyahoga County were included.

The survey pointed out to educators and young people such factors as manufacturing-machinery, iron and steel, transportation equipment, and electrical machinery accounted for 49 percent of total employment. The majority of those in nonmanufacturing were employed in government, construction, food and liquor, retail merchandising, railroads, and service. Industries were indicated in which managerial positions were relatively scarce or plentiful. Only a small proportion of manufacturing industries employed scientific or engineering personnel. Public contact employees were found in greater numbers among nonmanufacturing industries than in manufacturing. Training was indicated that was most desirable for young people who intended to remain in the community for employment. Occupational and unemployment data pointed out a means by which more intelligent vocational guidance and training could be planned and conducted.

Occupational Outlook

Occupational outlook research which has dealt with the future of jobs, occupational trends, and supply and demand of workers, has affected vocational plans of young people in various ways. In spite of the fact that it is impossible to predict the number of workers in any industry ten years hence, it is feasible to give a likely guess. Is a trained worker likely to find it difficult or easy to find employment in his field after ten years? To make such a guess, a variety of different factors must be considered for many

different fields. The factors affecting one field are likely to be quite different from those affecting another field of work.

In 1938, upon the recommendation of the President's Advisory Committee on Education, an Outlook Service was set up in the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Outlook studies were begun in 1941, but only recently have findings become available. For example, the prospects of the automobile mechanic were studied.

For automobile mechanics (48), it was predicted that a sharp rise in employment would be in prospect, but the number of persons seeking work would exceed the number of available jobs. The less skilled men would have difficulty in finding work, but the highly skilled specialists and all-around mechanics would have a good chance of employment. Similar information has also been released for the following fields: aviation occupations (44, 45), business machine servicemen (49), chemists and chemical engineers (54), diesel-engine mechanics (46), foundry workers (50), hosiery workers (59), hotel workers (51), machine shop workers (52), physicians (60), printing workers (53), and welders (47).

Teachers of occupations classes and counselors have used *Occupational Data for Counselors* (57) in schools and colleges as a tool to show employment in each major occupational group and industry. Trends in 200 important occupations with suggestions for interpreting census data were also included.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics also undertook the preparation of long range "occupational outlook statements" for the Veterans Administration. These were published in "Veterans Administration Manual M 7-1, Occupational Outlook Information," an official publication for use of Veterans Administration counselors and not for sale. However, mimeographed copies of the individual statements (58) as listed in the bibliography were made available to the public thru the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These statements described the long range employment outlook in occupations of particular interest to veterans. Information was also given on training required, earnings, and industries and localities in which the occupation was found. The statements included 81 percent of the professional and semiprofessional workers, 77 percent of the skilled workers, 41 percent of the clerical workers, 30 percent of the service workers, and many others.

Small Business

A considerable amount of research has been done concerning small businesses. The Department of Commerce issued a series of forty publications (3 thru 43) on "establishing and operating a business." Each of these studies was intended to serve as a guide in operating small shops and service establishments. Originally, these researches were developed for use of returning veterans, but later, the series was made available to all. The writers did not cover training for the "mechanical skills." It was

assumed that the business man who wished to open a shop was a thoroly experienced skilled worker, who desired to know the management end of the business. Each manual, therefore, covered such management topics as: location, capital investment, organization and management of the business, operating costs and record keeping, getting business, financing, buying, arrangement and display, pricing, credits and collections, and employee relations. The series was introduced by a bulletin on "establishing and operating your own business" (3), which presented some of the questions which should be considered before starting any business. The following businesses were covered in the series: air conditioning and refrigeration (41), apparel (16), automatic merchandising (40), automobile repair (9), aviation businesses (43), bakery (14), beauty shop (10), bookkeeping service (23), bookstore (24), brick and tile (31), confectionery-tobacco (30), dry cleaning (17), electrical appliance and radio (12), feed and farm supplies (27), gift shop (35), grocery (7), hardware (15), heating and plumbing (20), jewelry (37), laundry (21), mail order (28), merchandise display (42), metal work (4), motor court (32), music store (39), newspaper (25), painting and decorating (12), printshop (38), real estate and insurance (11), restaurant (22), sawmill (6), service station (8), shoe store (18), shoe repair (5), sporting goods (36), stationery (26), trucking (34), variety store (19), wallpaper store (33), and woodworking (29).

Altho these researches did not cover training needed for the necessary skills, they furnished a good background for those who were considering one of these fields of work. For example, a person considering air conditioning and refrigeration learned about opportunities, requirements and training in the various employment situations such as: service organizations, dealerships, distributors, jobbers, wholesalers, contractors, engineers, manufacturing, subcontracting, production, installation, maintenance, design, office work, and sales. Similar information was given for the other businesses.

Space does not permit a digest of the scores of occupational monographs released by the Federal Government thru the U. S. Government Printing Office. However, attention is called to a number of publications that are the result of considerable research. The National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, U. S. Employment Service, did a large amount of research concerning sixty-nine professions. Originally these descriptions were printed on five by eight inch cards, but in 1947 a series of seven pamphlets replaced the cards (68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74). Each pamphlet is made up of related fields. In addition, the Roster investigated four professional fields of work and issued "Vocational Booklets" on Geology (64), Chemistry (65), Chemical Engineering (66), and Meteorology (67). The purpose of these vocational booklets was to give brief descriptions of workers, work, employment, and training for those who wanted vocational advice in these four fields.

Likewise, the Women's Bureau studied the vocational situation as it applied to girls and women. So far, their work has culminated in a series of studies of the outlook for women in medical services: physical therapists (80), occupational therapists (81), professional nurses (82), medical laboratory technicians (83), practical nurses and hospital attendants (84), medical record librarians (85), women physicians (86), X-ray technicians (87), women dentists (88), dental hygienists (89), physicians' and dentists' assistants (90), and trends for women workers (91).

Summary

As far as vocational guidance is concerned, most of the references mentioned here and many others for sale by independent publishers were collected and annotated by Greenleaf (78) in "Guide to Occupational Choice and Training." This guide suggested ways and means of collecting and preserving occupational information for school use. In addition, sources, books, monographs, films, and materials for guidance use were indicated especially for new counselors and for others who provide functional programs.

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CHAPTER VIII

Preparation of Guidance and Personnel Workers

ARTHUR J. JONES

THE continued demand for trained, competent workers in guidance and personnel work has stimulated the initiation of many programs for the preparation of all types of guidance and personnel workers, in schools, universities, business and industry, and in government service.

Types of Research

The research in this field has been rather meager and, for the most part, confined to the following: (a) assembly of data on present practices in preparation, including desirable characteristics, general requirements, courses offered, types of training and experience; (b) certification requirements; and (c) evaluation.

Preparation of Guidance and Personnel Workers

Personal Characteristics—The California State Guidance Committee (3) lists the following personal qualifications for a successful counselor in schools: (a) willingness to work "beyond the call of duty"; (b) a consistent, friendly, approachable manner; (c) emotional stability; (d) objective attitude in dealing with human relations, and (e) interest in continuous professional development. Jones (6) made a comparison of personal characteristics considered essential by five different authorities. Twenty-four characteristics were listed of which only five were mentioned by all, and an additional nine by four authorities. These are: (a) good character and wholesome personality; (b) emotional stability; (c) approachability, friendliness; (d) sympathetic understanding of youth; (e) understanding of classroom conditions; (f) sincerity; (g) "personality"; (h) ability to get along with people; (i) intelligence, mental alertness; (j) social culture; (k) broad knowledge and interests; (l) leadership; (m) professional attitude; (n) interest in guidance and personnel work. The similarity between the items in these two lists indicates the probability of essential agreement upon certain basic characteristics for counselors.

General Requirements and Courses

Brewster (2) studied the courses offered in the field of guidance and personnel work in colleges and universities during the summer of 1947. The number of institutions reporting courses offered for different levels of work were: elementary schools, eighty-five, secondary schools, 139, colleges,

sixty-nine. The types of services were varied: adult, general, rehabilitation, employment, nursing school, industrial management, and unspecialized guidance worker. The number of courses offered by any one institution varied from one to forty-one. Sixty-seven institutions offered only one course. Only twenty-nine institutions offered nine or more courses. Some institutions listed only those courses closely related to guidance, while others included practically all courses in psychology and sociology. Fifty-nine institutions offered workshops, conferences, or cooperative counselor training plans; sixty-four institutions offered work leading to a major in guidance for the master's degree and twenty-eight for the doctor's degree.

Spriegel (15), thru a questionnaire sent to 112 schools of business in state and private colleges and universities, found that there was no uniformity in the courses offered for the preparation of workers in personnel management or industrial relations. Only two courses, personnel management and industrial organization and management, were offered by 75 percent of the institutions. In addition only two other courses, collective bargaining and labor problems, and legislative and government controls, were offered by half of the institutions. Only twenty-two institutions provided some form of laboratory or clinical experience. La Barre (7) made a preliminary report of a study by the American Council on Education in which a questionnaire was sent to 299 institutions offering graduate programs. The main areas covered were: (a) graduate training available, including levels, special fields, degrees offered, time required, and whether or not the training offered met state certification requirements; (b) departmental majors; (c) undergraduate and graduate prerequisites; (d) courses offered; (e) required practice or in-service training; (f) student personnel service in which training is available; (g) faculty; (h) assistantships or fellowships available. One hundred ten colleges reported that they had an organized program of study for educational personnel work; seventeen additional institutions offered graduate training for other kinds of personnel work; 144 offered no organized training for this field, altho a number of these offered some courses. Better than 80 percent of the institutions offering organized programs provided some form of practice experience.

Courses Recommended

Graver (5) received replies from 214 counselors to whom he sent a questionnaire: sixty-one working in business and industry, sixty-two in social service agencies, and ninety-one in educational institutions (seventeen in colleges, seventy-four in public high schools.) The questionnaire called for opinions regarding desirable academic and professional preparation. Practically all counselors recommended either psychology or sociology as a major undergraduate field. Counselors in schools and colleges considered a graduate degree essential. The field most frequently mentioned was psychology; other fields were education, business administration, and

case work. The courses most frequently mentioned as essential were technics of counseling, applied psychology, statistics, abnormal psychology, psychiatric information, and clinical training. All felt that courses should be more practical and less theoretical. Tests and measurements were considered essential by those in educational institutions; broad experience was considered essential by all. Of the 128 counselors answering the question, thirteen favored some form of nondirective methods. The chief conclusion was that there was sufficient agreement in the opinions of the three groups regarding desirable backgrounds and training to warrant the formulation of a common pattern of requirements and training for all counselors.

Warren (19) made a follow-up study of seventy-one persons who had received degrees from New York University in the Department of Guidance and Personnel Administration. Of the sixty-one who replied to the question, forty-five were engaged in part-time or full-time employment in guidance and personnel work. Of these, twenty-one were in college or school, fourteen in government work, three in business and industry, five in social service and two in private enterprise. Those engaged in other types of work were, ten in college and school, one in government service and five in business and industry. The replies to courses taken or desired varied greatly: over seventy different courses were mentioned. No clear indication was given in the study of a desirable program of training. The most frequent courses mentioned were (a) principles and technics of guidance; (b) tests and measurements; (c) survey of occupations; and (d) community resources. Eighty percent felt that a course in employment opportunities (for counselors) would be desirable. Jones (6) made a comparison of courses and experiences considered necessary by five different authorities. Of the twenty-nine courses listed only two were mentioned by all five authorities and four more by four of the five; five others were mentioned by three. Thus there was substantial agreement on six of the twenty-nine and fair agreement on eleven. These eleven were: psychology, biology, tests and measurements, economics and sociology, vocational guidance, principles of education, group leadership, community relations, mental hygiene, and counseling technics.

The two conferences sponsored by the U. S. Office of Education (18) in Chicago, Illinois, and Raleigh, North Carolina, recommended certain course areas that should be covered in the preparation of counselors in secondary schools. The Chicago conference selected the following: (a) basic overview, or introductory course; (b) understanding of the individual; (c) occupational information and training opportunities; (d) counseling procedures; (e) organizational relationships of the guidance program. The areas suggested by the Raleigh conference were: (a) a basic course in principles and practices of guidance; (b) understanding the individual; (c) occupations, with a survey of related education and training; (d) counseling; (e) research and evaluation of guidance; (f) organi-

zational relationships of the guidance program. Morgan (9) reports that twenty-five universities, in cooperation with the Veterans Administration, have organized curriculums for the training of clinical psychologists leading to the doctor's degree. The number of students assigned to each university varies from four to twenty. The course is outlined for four years. The curriculum includes courses in advanced clinical psychology, social psychology, clinical research, construction of tests, and the completion of a doctoral dissertation.

The U. S. Employment Service

The U. S. Employment Service (17) has set up a program for the training of its national and state employees. The objectives of the program are to make certain that every employee has (a) an understanding of the major objectives, methods and organization of the service; (b) a clear understanding of his duties, responsibilities, authority, and work standards; (c) the knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities necessary to do his job effectively. Two types of training are offered, induction training and refresher training. The training is provided by the supervisor thru frequent personal conferences, by means of special institutes, and special courses set up by universities. To assist in such training a series of work books and instructors guides have been prepared.

The Office of Vocational Rehabilitation of the Federal Security Agency (11, 12), in cooperation with the state agencies, has also organized a training program for rehabilitation counselors and other personnel. Among the procedures used are two weeks institutes and courses organized by universities in cooperation with the Federal service. A series of staff development aids dealing with the newest advances in practices, projects, and activities in rehabilitation and allied fields is prepared and widely distributed. A bi-monthly periodical, "Selected Rehabilitation Abstracts" giving regular coverage of articles pertinent to rehabilitation and counseling, is now being published. Ohio State University has organized a training program leading to advanced degrees in which the minimum required semester credits are twenty-one to which is added a number of elective credits in psychology, economics, and political science. The required courses are in the following areas: (a) social implications of rehabilitation; (b) social case work; (c) psychiatric aspects of social work; (d) community organization processes; (e) methods of social investigation; (f) occupational information; and (g) field work. Two features of this program are: (a) a definition of the work of the rehabilitation counselor and (b) a statement of requirements for successful service in this field.

Wayne University's program in rehabilitation training begins with a statement of prerequisites for beginning the program in terms of courses and personal characteristics and lists the general areas of knowledge and skills that are the objectives of the program. The equivalent of sixteen

semester credits is required in general professional background, eight in specialized sequences; eight in noneducational and nonspecializing courses, making a total minimum requirement of thirty-two semester credits.

Two other training courses are worthy of mention since they include some attempt at evaluation. Blocksma and Porter (1), under the supervision of Carl R. Rogers, set up a six-weeks training course at the University of Chicago Counseling Center for selected personnel of the Veterans Administration. In this course "nondirective" counseling was emphasized. The objectives set up for the course were: (a) skill in recognition and reflection of attitudes underlying the client's statements in the interview; (b) skill in recognition and reflection of attitudes shown by the counselor in the interview; and (c) the determination of the consistency of nondirective attitudes in counseling interviews. The training consisted of: (a) a presentation period; (b) a case-analysis period; (c) a period of reconstructed records with recordings with counselor responses left out; and (d) a final planning period. A sub-group of light trainees was allowed to express their positive and negative reactions toward indirect counseling. This seemed to result in an improved insight into the trainees' own past performances.

Robinson (14) describes a project set up at Ohio State University in which individualized remedial service to students gave supervised practical experience to counselors-in-training. Each undergraduate student in need of remedial work enrolled in a three-hour credit laboratory course, in the psychology of effective study and individual adjustment. Each section was limited to twenty students who met daily for one hour. The counselors-in-training were advanced students and were required to enrol in certain courses related to counseling. Each was responsible for from two to four students. He met them individually in weekly conferences and supervised and observed their study. The objectives were the development of higher levels of work, skills in diagnosis and remedying of deficiencies, and aid in other problem areas, such as personal and social adjustments and vocational planning. The students showed improvement in skills, scholastic average, social adjustment, and behavior ratings. They also testified that they were helped by the work. Counselors-in-training reported increase in knowledge and skills and improvement in personal qualities and adjustments.

Certification

Young (20) made a study of certification requirements for guidance workers in the United States. Seventeen states had some special certification requirements. Among the states there was a wide variety of positions covered by the certifications and a great variety of requirements. Some states offered two certificates, provisional and professional. The general requirements were as follows:

Provisional Certificate:

General: (a) bachelor's degree; (b) teacher's certificate on the grade level where work is to be done; (c) two years teaching experience; and (d) one year of work experience (other than teaching).

Required courses: (a) principles and practices of educational and vocational guidance; (b) occupational research; (c) general psychology; (d) counseling techniques; (e) abnormal psychology; (f) tests and measurements; (g) economics; and (h) sociology. The credit hours required varied from six to thirty.

Professional Certificate:

All the requirements for the Provisional Certificate plus the master's degree including twelve to twenty-four hours of graduate credit in guidance courses and successful experience in some phase of guidance work.

The state guidance committee of California (3) was engaged in the formulation of a basic state program for counselor training. In the tentative statement two general functions of guidance personnel are indicated: (a) direct service to students and (b) additional services required for a coordinated service. Recommended experiences include: (a) two years or more of teaching; (b) vocational experience other than teaching; and (c) participation and leadership in professional and community activities. For all counselors four major areas of training were indicated: (a) understanding of the function of the guidance program; (b) skill in appraising individual abilities, interests, and needs; (c) understanding of social and vocational opportunities; and (d) understanding of technics of individual counseling. Ten types of courses for the fundamental work are listed, and nine additional areas are indicated for the director or coordinator of guidance. A distinctive feature of the proposed program is indicated in the provisions for in-service training. The following points are suggested: (a) all guidance personnel should participate in a continuous in-service training program; (b) this program should focus directly upon the improvement of services to youth; (c) it should be an integral part of the total school program; (d) the activities should be planned and carried thru cooperatively by all guidance personnel; (e) it should be flexible to provide diversified activities such as work shops, case conferences, surveys of literature, visits to school programs and community agencies, extension classes, etc.; (f) the program should ensure tasks of increasing difficulties for the various guidance workers. Several other states are now in the midst of a reformulation of certification requirements.

Evaluation

The past few years have shown a definite increase in the interest in the evaluation of guidance and counseling. Two lines of approach have been used: (a) appraisal of the effect of the training program upon the counselors-in-training and (b) appraisal of the effect of the program of guidance or personnel work upon the counselee. The project of Robinson (14) al-

ready described combines both features. The survey of the Minnesota Vocational Rehabilitation Program (10) employed the second approach. This indicated that a large percentage of the clients considered the service valuable to them. They expressed a desire for closer and more frequent contacts with the counselor. Luchins (8) made an experimental study of various preliminary methods which were used with group psychotherapy programs in two army hospitals. The methods used were (a) interviews with each patient before and after the course; (b) reports by patients telling what they had learned; (c) observation by the ward psychiatrists of the behavior of patients; (d) problems and tests given to the patient; (e) behavior of the class as a whole. The results of the different methods were then compared. Each method seemed to have some advantages in dealing with different patients. DiMichael and Dabelstein (4) employed a list of fourteen features of the job on which supervisors were asked to rate each counselor. These were: (a) quality of work; (b) use of community resources; (c) contacting employers for jobs; (d) skill in interviewing clients; (e) writing case histories; (f) job as a whole; (g) handling clerical details; (h) production record; (i) skill in imparting vocational information; (j) skill in interpreting test results; (k) rehabilitation work after hours; (l) promoting the program to the public; (m) reading scientific literature on guidance; (n) experimenting with guidance technics. Planty (13) describes some attempts to evaluate supervisory training. He rejects tests and testimonials as ineffective and believes that the most effective methods for evaluation of such training are observation of actual performance by competent observers at the beginning and again at the end of the training period and with and without training. Strang (16) cites the need for more adequate criteria and for their measurement and states the following conditions that must be met: (a) provision of comparable groups; (b) standard means of describing research populations; (c) scientific basis for ascertaining the significance of responses of the individual to standardized and to real life situations; (d) standard means for determining the degree of clinical improvement; (e) sufficient number of cases to warrant generalizations; (f) follow-up for a sufficiently long time to ascertain delayed effects of the treatment.

Needed Research

Some of the studies reported in this chapter give hope of a new and more vital approach to the formulation of programs of counselor training and to a more adequate appraisal of the effectiveness of such training. First, there is evidence of substantial agreement upon a core of characteristics and competencies essential to all successful counselors in every field of work, school, college, business and industry, and government work. That is, counseling, in whatever area, deals with individuals and this requires certain skills and characteristics that are basic. In addition to these, specialized

areas require diverse elements. Second, the tendency is increasing to emphasize attainments, the results of training, rather than courses taken or semester credits received. Third, the fact is slowly being recognized that competency as a guidance or personnel worker is a composite of many factors fused into a personality that is effective in a guidance situation, not a mixture of separate and often contradictory elements. Research and experimentation is still badly needed in the determination of desirable objectives, in the organization of courses and activities calculated to result in the objectives set up, and in appraisal of results.

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